

# THE SCHOOL REVIEW

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## Educational News and Editorial Comment

### SAMUEL CHESTER PARKER

Professor Samuel Chester Parker died on July 21, 1924, after an operation for appendicitis. He was born in Cincinnati, Ohio, May 31, 1880. He attended the public schools and afterward the municipal university of his native city, graduating from the latter in 1901. The following year he specialized in education and taught in Cincinnati. During the summer of 1902 he attended the University of Chicago where he came into contact with Dewey and received one of the profound intellectual impressions of his life. In 1902-3 he attended Teachers College and secured the Master's degree. During this year and a later year of residence at Teachers College he was very greatly influenced in his thinking by Thorndike.

In 1903 Professor Parker was appointed to a position in the department of education of Miami University, where he served until 1909, when he began his career at the University of Chicago. At Miami he taught history of education and general methods. On coming to the University of Chicago he devoted his time and attention to methods of teaching, in which field he did his writing and made himself a distinguished trainer of teachers. For a period of five years, from 1911 to 1916, he was dean of the College of Education.

Professor Parker's first book, entitled, *A Textbook in the History of Modern Elementary Education*, was published in 1912. It was unique in the emphasis which it laid on actual school practices as distinguished from educational theory and on the social conditions out of which school practices have grown in successive periods.

His second book, published in 1915, was on *Methods of Teaching in High Schools*. This was a pioneer in its field and has not been rivaled in the extent of its use and in the range of its influence in institutions which prepare secondary-school teachers.

His later books deal with methods in the elementary schools and with practical exercises to be used in classes in methods of teaching. At the time of his death he had nearly completed the manuscript of a book on which he was collaborating with Miss Alice Temple on the methods of teaching in the kindergarten and primary grades.

All of Professor Parker's writings are characterized by a directness and a clarity of style which render his books readily intelligible to students. He was thoroughly conversant with the literature on education and selected the materials for his books with an insight for the practical which makes them standards in their fields.

A large part of the success of Professor Parker's books is due to the fact that he made a systematic study of textbook construction and planned his work in the most methodical fashion. Among his friends it was a matter of common knowledge that he laid out plans for production years in advance and did his writing with unrelenting regularity and devotion.

In his teaching Professor Parker was as methodical and practical as he was in his writing. He added here a vein of analytical and personal comment which brought his students into the most intimate contact with his modes of thinking and living.

For a number of years he was secretary of the National Society for the Study of Education. He saw the possibility of making this organization into an influential agency for the publication and distribution of scientific material on education, and he contributed much to the establishment of the policies that have led to the success of the society.

Among those who knew him intimately he was recognized as a unique personality. Highly analytical in his thinking, he treated his own work and his own characteristics with a kind of objectivity that was as exacting in its criticism and standards as the treatment to which he subjected all scientific material. He was a keen judge of human abilities. He was always eager to help talent and condemn stupidity. Many of his students know the incisive way in which he rendered his judgments about the probabilities of professional success and promoted the selection and encouragement of those whom he judged to be worthy.

Professor Parker leaves a widow, Lucile Jones Parker, with whom he became acquainted in college and to whom he was married in 1904, and a son, Harold, sixteen years of age. He was buried in Cincinnati. A memorial service was held by the University of Chicago on Sunday, August 10.

#### STUDIES OF THE CURRICULUM

The number of public agencies which are undertaking extensive studies of the school curriculum, either in general or in particular lines, multiplies so rapidly that it is evident that the time has come when radical changes are to be made in the program of school instruction.

The Educational Research Committee of the Commonwealth Fund is making, through Professor George S. Counts, of Yale University, a study of the senior high school. This committee made possible last year a study of the elementary school and the junior high school by James M. Glass and a study of the college by Professor F. J. Kelly, both of which will be reported in publications to be issued shortly. It has also provided for the preparation and publication of summaries of scientific studies on reading and arithmetic and for an elaborate study on pharmacy as a branch of professional training which is readily open to investigation.

In addition to the investigations on mathematics and the classics which were subsidized by the General Education Board, an investigation, with similar support, is being inaugurated in the field of English.

The Carnegie Corporation, under the leadership of its new president, F. P. Keppel, has organized commissions, which it is supporting with liberality, for the study of instruction in the modern languages and the fine arts. This corporation is also giving aid to the librarians in the development of a vigorous educational movement.

The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association has an active committee, headed by Superintendent E. C. Broome of Philadelphia, which is preparing a yearbook on the curriculum of the elementary grades to be published before its next meeting. This committee has employed Margaret M. Alltucker as a special agent to secure the co-operation of specialists in various parts of the country in preparing material for the yearbook.

The National Society for the Study of Education is preparing, through Professor Harold O. Rugg, a yearbook which will report the methods of work adopted by the various agencies dealing with curriculum problems. The hope is that a critical comparative study of this kind will lead to a more intelligent organization of the future activities of agencies which take up the task of curriculum construction.

To the foregoing must be added some reference to the work which is being done within school systems. Under the leadership of Commissioner A. B. Meredith of Connecticut, committees of school officers have been at work for some time past in reconstructing the state courses of study. In many cities, notably in Denver under Superintendent J. H. Newlon, extensive operations are under way looking toward the complete reconstruction of the curriculum. In the Denver program the University of Colorado is co-operating through Professor L. T. Hopkins.

Doubtless the list of curriculum studies here recorded is altogether incomplete. It is full enough, however, to show that the constructive period in American education has arrived. Tests and measures prepared the way for this period of creative effort by furnishing the means of analysis and study of results. Tests and measures do not, however, operate automatically to build up school systems. There must be a collection and an arrangement



of new bodies of intellectual material if the schools are to produce the type of results which tests and measures show that the public has a right to demand. The processes of bringing together the needed materials of instruction are the processes which are now engaging the energy of the educational world.

#### AMERICAN EDUCATION WEEK

For the past two years the Bureau of Education has organized, in co-operation with the American Legion, a week of discussion of educational matters under the title, "American Education Week." The dates selected for this year are November 17-23. A program has been arranged which will be brought to the attention of the people of the United States by proclamations issued by the President, by the governors of the several states, and by the local government officials.

It is recommended that in special assemblies, in parent-teacher meetings, in churches, in clubs, and in the schools themselves the week be devoted to the discussion of educational topics according to the following schedule: Monday, Constitution Day; Tuesday, Patriotism Day; Wednesday, School and Teacher Day; Thursday, Illiteracy Day; Friday, Physical Education Day; Saturday, Community Day; Sunday, For God and Country Day.

Teachers and superintendents are urged to use their influence in securing as widespread attention to this program as possible. Special materials for publication in newspapers and for use at meetings will be supplied by the Bureau of Education.

#### THE NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION

The National Education Association at its meeting held in Washington, D.C., during the first week in July, reaffirmed the policy which the Association has followed for some years of insisting that the Sterling-Reed Bill be passed by Congress. Superintendent J. H. Newlon, of Denver, Colorado, who was designated at the Oakland meeting by the group which, with some interruptions, has kept the National Education Association in hand since the Salt Lake City meeting, was duly elected president and indicated that his policy would be to keep up the membership of the Association and push the bill now before Congress.

There is a grave responsibility resting on those who have assumed to dictate, so far as possible, the policies and the officers of the Association. They have to face the fact that the Association has a large financial deficit and is struggling against what seem to be increasing odds to maintain the numerical strength which its membership achieved shortly after the war. The organization is sorely in need of guidance. Year after year the teachers have been offered promises of federal subsidies for this and that and have seen an association which ought to spend its funds in committee work exhausting itself in politics and lobbying. Well may President Newlon feel that he has a task before him in keeping up the membership, especially if he has to hold to the thick-and-thin policy of promising subsidies out of the federal treasury.

The Association fortunately had the opportunity of hearing the President of the United States. There was wisdom in the President's address which might very well serve the officers of the National Education Association as the keynote of a new policy which would lead the organization out of the morass into which it has been drawn by internal jockeying. Here are the words which the President employed in defining his policy for national participation in education:

The cause of education has long had the thoughtful solicitude of the national government. While it is realized that it is a state affair rather than a national affair, nevertheless there is provided by law a Bureau of Education. It has not been thought wise to undertake to collect money from the various states into the national treasury and distribute it again among the various states for the direct support of education. It has seemed a better policy to leave their taxable resources to the states and permit them to make their own assessments for the support of their own schools in their own way. But for a long time the cause of education has been regarded as so important and so pre-eminently an American cause that the national government has sought to encourage it, scientifically to investigate its needs, and to furnish information and advice for its constant advancement. Pending before the Congress is the report of a committee which proposes to establish a department of education and relief, to be presided over by a cabinet officer. Bearing in mind that this does not mean any interference with the local control but is rather an attempt to recognize and dignify the importance of educational effort, such proposal has my hearty indorsement and support.

It may not be futile to make one more appeal to those who have taken charge of the National Education Association to accept the policy of President Coolidge. It is recognized on all sides that what this country really needs is a national agency for the scientific investigation of education and for the widest kind of publicity on educational matters. The country ought not to be confronted with an armed teachers' association, fighting for federal funds and even opposing the friends of a scientific federal department in order to save the faces of those who began in 1918 to clamor for federal subsidies. Let us put away the false statement that schools cannot succeed without money from the national treasury and adopt the defensible policy of advocating a larger and broader training of a nation to understand its educational needs through a federal department organized for research and publication.

#### THE CLASSICS

The following item, copied from the *New York Times*, describes the report on the teaching of Latin and Greek to be issued by the American Classical League.

What is considered the most extensive and searching investigation ever made of the classics in American schools, or of any other school study, has been concluded by the American Classical League. It has taken three years and has covered the entire United States.

The small special investigating committee—comprising Andrew F. West, president of the American Classical League and dean of the graduate school at Princeton, chairman; W. L. Carr; Mason D. Gray; and W. V. McDuffie—has had the co-operation of many agencies, federal, state, and collegiate. More than eight thousand teachers have given their services; many public meetings have been held; and the amount of traveling by members of the classical committees exceeds 160,000 miles.

The findings, as amended and adopted by the national advisory committee, will make a book of about 350 pages, which is to be published in September. This general report forms Part I of the investigation; the five parts are to be published within two years.

The following summary was issued by Dr. West:

"First of all, the report is based on full statistical knowledge, newly devised scientific tests, special historical studies, and collections of expert opinion. To eliminate any bias of judgment which might be attributed to the investigation if it were conducted entirely by classical teachers, the collaboration and

criticism of forty-eight professors of education and psychology have been secured and have proved of great value. We have sought simply to ascertain the facts, favorable and unfavorable, and to discover their meaning. This has been done thoroughly.

"Second, we have sought for the true aims or objectives, the proper content, and the best method of classical teaching in order to discover our faults and improve our teaching. This has been one of the most laborious and fruitful parts of the work. In the same way we have endeavored to improve the organization of the course of study and to devise a progressive plan for the future. We believe we have succeeded in doing so.

"Third, it is now made clear by evident proof that the way to secure this most desirable and attainable result is to lay great stress on early acquisition of power to read and understand the classical languages and also concurrently and constantly to emphasize the larger permanent values, historical, literary, disciplinary, and practical, which are derivable from proper training in the classics. We emphasize throughout the humanistic spirit as opposed to the pedantic. We believe that this is the way to kindle enthusiasm and to awaken in full power the best energies and highest aspirations of students and teachers alike.

"Fourth, we find that the two things which now need most urgent attention are better organization of the course of study and provision for training classical teachers.

"In reorganizing the course we propose to introduce easy Latin reading early and to reduce somewhat the amount of reading required in the classical authors, believing it to be better to read a smaller amount well than a larger amount poorly. We also lay great stress on practice in sight-reading.

"But the securing of better-trained teachers in much larger numbers is our chief problem. All of our researches converge on this point. If we can get the well-trained teachers in sufficient abundance, we believe that the rest will take care of itself. We have many such teachers now, but the demand is very far in excess of the supply. If anyone wants to make sure that our classical teaching shall produce its full beneficent effect on a large scale for a long time to come, here is the way to do it: Give us now the thousands and thousands of well-trained teachers we so imperatively need.

"Fifth, notwithstanding our faults and failings, the Latin pupils (and, even more, the Greek pupils) are, on the whole, the best students in our schools. This is now a matter of definite proof. They usually do better than the non-classical pupils in English, modern languages, history, mathematics, and the sciences. All of the evidence points this way. Perhaps we need not worry greatly as to what all of the reasons are, but one reason is evidently that the classical pupils do not shrink from training and "stand the gaff" better than the others.

"Sixth, we find that while the enrolment in Greek is deplorably small, it is increasing. The enrolment in Latin is growing by leaps and bounds

and now slightly exceeds the combined enrolment in all other foreign languages. Remember that this is despite the great diversion of educational energies to "practical" subjects during the war. So far as Latin pupils are concerned, we never have had such a flooding in of them. Can we get the teachers to handle them? That's the question.

"Seventh, we find that England, France, and Italy have reorganized their secondary schools since the war and have notably strengthened the position of their classical studies—France most of all. No construction has yet been effected in Germany.

"Eighth, the report discusses the bearing of our classical schooling on the wider problem of the needed reorganization of our entire secondary education.

"Ninth, the tide appears to be turning in the right direction in our schools. Simplification of the course of study, better teaching and emphasis on training in the few essential studies of most general educational value, continuity and coherence in the pupil's work—these are the indicated lines of what we hope is to be the coming reconstruction of our secondary schools. Whenever that happens, the colleges will be able to stand more strongly on a sound schooling and will be helped to do better college work."

It is perhaps injudicious to comment on a report when one has in hand only a summary, even though the summary comes from the highest authority. When one reads about the "flooding in" of Latin students and about the enrolment in Latin "growing by leaps and bounds," one wonders whether the statistical tables which are summarized in these statements will include the item that the vast majority of this flood of students take the subject for one-half or one-quarter of the length of time that used to be common. Is the classical group really optimistic about an increase in the registration of students in Greek? Does it really think that the American high schools will follow the example of the French higher schools? If so, the ordinary student of education will read the report with the feeling that, however long the investigators have worked and however many pages the report contains, the findings are biased by the prejudices of those who gathered the figures and interpreted their meaning.

#### THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN CHICAGO

The new superintendent of schools in Chicago has achieved a great victory. He has brought it about that the city, including the Teachers' Federation, has discussed for some months past certain strictly educational issues. Be it noted, however, that it is not

stated that the discussion of these issues has been highly intelligent or unmixed with references to matters which are far from educational. The habits of a lifetime are not easily surrendered. The Teachers' Federation does not want the teachers of the seventh and eighth grades to escape into that uncontrolled realm, the high school, where the high priestess of that organization cannot dictate teachers' judgments and pronouncements. So the junior high school must be opposed at any cost.

It has proved to be a little difficult to carry on the discussion when one does not know much about the real issues involved and is afraid that one's position of opposition is wrong and indefensible. It has seemed expedient, therefore, to raise as much as possible of the old-fashioned hue and cry about the dangers to democracy and about domination by big capitalistic interests. In the meantime, the new superintendent has gone on his way; the new junior high schools are to be opened this autumn, and the city finds itself with a progressive school policy and with some real educational ideas beginning to circulate throughout the thinking of the whole municipality. All of this is gain for the city of Chicago and for the country at large.

The board of education took action approving the new school after listening to the report of a commission composed of some of its own members, of representatives of the teaching profession, and of citizens interested in education. It organized a course of lectures on the junior high school for the school principals of the city and later printed these lectures in a book of 160 pages. It appointed a vigorous man to supervise the work of the schools, and the experiment is launched.

The City Council, after its manner of treating the schools as a football of politics, tried to summon the superintendent of schools and the president of the board of education to answer for their policy of attempting to conduct the schools without due regard to the wishes of those who have influence with the Council. The superintendent and the president of the board did not respond to the summons, and dire threats have been heard about what will happen. In the meantime, the city of Chicago has had the exhilarating experience of seeing educational officers who know their

rights and responsibilities and who know that the City Council has no more right to interfere with the schools than it has to interfere with the banking system of the city or with the construction of a municipal hospital.

The city of Chicago owes much to a superintendent who can teach it, by way of the junior high school, to think about education.

#### CLEVELAND HEIGHTS AND ITS SCHOOL REORGANIZATION

Cleveland Heights, Ohio, is a well-to-do suburb of the thriving city on Lake Erie from which it borrows the first half of its name. The people of Cleveland Heights want good schools and are able to pay for them. Two years ago some of the citizens decided that the schools needed a survey and possibly some reforming, and, as a result, a group of outside experts made observations, put the pupils through tests, and handed in a report.

Cleveland Heights has had no rest since that momentous happening. Trouble began before the survey and has continued ever since. A citizen secured a temporary injunction against the publication of the report but failed to secure the consent of the court to a permanent injunction. The report was printed and distributed. Shortly afterward the superintendent resigned, and a successor was appointed. The confidence of the board of education in the director of the survey was so great that his advice was accepted, and the new superintendent was a young man who had been associated with the director of the survey in school administration. The new superintendent worked some very wholesome reforms and may have made some mistakes, although these are not recorded during the first eight months of his strenuous first year. In May, 1924, with the consent of the board of education, the new superintendent notified the head of the high school that there would have to be a change in the high-school principalship.

Then the storm broke loose. If the suburb had been restless before, it now became agitated. Committees of citizens petitioned the board of education to restore the principal. Other committees threatened. The pupils also took a hand in the matter. There were mass meetings with speeches and resolutions and even some fist-shaking.



The following glimpse into the occurrences of one evening is taken from the *Cleveland Plain Dealer*:

Everitt Emerson Morley, Akron, Ohio, last night was appointed principal of the Cleveland Heights High school for one year by the unanimous vote of the board of education. The recommendation was made by Superintendent Frank L. Wiley.

The appointment was an answer to the citizens' committee of sixteen, which had asked that Carl D. Burt be reappointed.

More than one hundred persons were crowded into the old Superior School board of education headquarters when the appointment was made, and nearly everyone had a part in the discussion which followed the board's action.

A. R. Fraser filed a petition signed, he said, by 3,565 Cleveland Heights voters. It asked the removal of Superintendent Wiley. This step, he said, had been delayed in the hope that the board would reconsider its action in not retaining Principal Burt.

George A. Coulton, member, defended the board's action. He told of his personal regard for Mr. Burt but said that Mr. Burt's policies did not coincide with the superintendent's and that for the good of the schools a new principal was needed.

Clay Herrick, representing the citizens' committee, assailed the board.

"A wrong has been done to Mr. Burt," Mr. Herrick said, "but it has grown beyond the question of Mr. Burt or Mr. Wiley. It's a question of right or wrong—and, by the eternal, it's going to be righted."

High-school students, among them M. C. Herrick, son of the committee member, took up the cudgels in behalf of Mr. Burt.

"If you think you're going to have peace next fall with a new principal, you don't know what's coming," young Herrick said.

Harry Feigenbaum, citizens' committee member, said that he had worked for peace but had found it of no avail.

"Mr. Wiley has conveyed misinformation about his supposed open-mindedness," Mr. Feigenbaum said. "He has been stalling."

William B. Woods, board member, took exception to the manner in which speakers were referring to Mr. Wiley.

"He's not here to be put on the grill tonight—and I, for one, won't stand for it," he said.

A communication from B. H. Sinks, which said that some appropriate form of substantial recognition and appreciation should be given Mr. Burt, was referred to the law department by the board.

It would provide, given the sanction of the board, that not less than two hundred citizens in a time of not over two weeks raise a gift equal to the yearly salary of Mr. Burt.

The board, meanwhile, would seek permission from the legislature to grant Mr. Burt a sabbatical leave for a year with pay.

Should the state declare it illegal, the citizens who contributed would not be repaid. If the state granted the board permission to pay Mr. Burr't a year's salary, the donors would be reimbursed.

All of the members of the board said that they had interviewed the new principal and expressed satisfaction with him.

Mr. Morley, who will receive \$5,250 a year, has for the last three years been the principal of the West High School at Akron. Previously, he had for three years been principal of the Reitz High School of Evansville, Indiana. He also had served for five years as high-school principal in Pennsylvania and Indiana. He has his Master's degree from Indiana University.

The board of education has been firm in its position; the superintendent did not change his policies, and Mr. Morley of Akron will open the high school on the second of September.

There are a number of lessons which this narrative suggests. Perhaps it is unnecessary to point out all of them. One lesson, which brings to consciousness what happens when people try to conduct their schools by mass-meetings and on the basis of personal sentiments, is shown so vividly in an editorial in the issue of the *Cleveland Plain Dealer* of June 27 that it seems proper to quote the editorial in full.

A high-school boy tells a suburban board of education that if it thinks it is "going to have peace next fall with a new principal, you don't know what's coming."

The present principal of this particular high school has been released by the superintendent, and the board sustains the action after a bitter community protest. Hundreds of citizens have petitioned for the principal's retention but without result. High-school boys and girls have been enlisted in the fight.

It is perhaps of no special interest outside the suburban community whether the superintendent who was employed to direct the educational system is given or denied the customary permission to have as principal under him a person in whole-hearted sympathy with his policies. When a high-school boy, however, tells the board of education to its face that mutiny in the school is inevitable unless the superintendent is reversed and the old principal retained, it becomes a matter of more than local moment.

We read a good deal nowadays about the lawlessness of youth—most of it "bunk." But here is an example of something closely akin openly threatened as if it constitutes a badge of merit. We suggest to the parents of this young man that between now and the opening of school in the fall he be given a brief but pointed course in good citizenship which involves obedience to reasonable discipline. It might save him much trouble and them no little embarrassment.

## THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL AND COLLEGE ENTRANCE

LEONARD V. KOOS  
University of Minnesota

Now that the junior high school has been accepted by most of our educational leaders and has found a place in a large percentage of our school systems, we become aware of certain problems involved in putting it into the most effective operation. One of the problems that was certain to arise is that of the satisfactory articulation of the new unit with other parts of the educational system. While the task of properly co-ordinating the new work with the work of the abbreviated elementary school is of considerable moment, the problem of articulating the junior and senior high schools is of such a nature as to give rise to more concern. It is the purpose of this article to consider the problem of articulating the two units in the new secondary school as it is influenced by the present college-entrance requirements.

### AIMS AND FUNCTIONS OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL

Basic to any consideration of the problem of articulating the junior and senior high schools must be our concepts of the aims and functions of secondary education. We must not only approximate agreement on the major features of these purposes, but we must also understand the extent to which they apply to that whole period lying between elementary and higher education. Again, we must understand which of these aims and functions, if any, apply peculiarly to either of the two or more units in which secondary education is to be administered.

Elsewhere<sup>1</sup> the writer has presented what may be regarded as a composite photograph of the concepts of the aims and functions of secondary education held by twenty-five leaders or groups of

<sup>1</sup> Leonard Vincent Koos, *The Junior College*, Vol. II, chap. xxvi. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1924.

leaders in the field. Our first step will be to present a summary of this study. Among those whose concepts of purposes were included are Bobbitt, Colvin, Davis, Inglis, Henderson, Lewis, Lull and Wilson, Parker, Ryneerson, Snedden, Stout, and the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education. Space will not be taken to set forth the many difficulties encountered during the process of an analysis of this sort, such as the confusion of overlapping categories, the danger of doing occasional violence to the original intent of the authors represented, etc. Nor will purposes only occasionally mentioned in the statements analyzed be referred to. Moreover, as the meaning of most of the categories is apparent, explanation will be of the briefest sort. At a few points, however, certain supplementary materials will be introduced which seem to be significantly related to the problem of articulation as here considered.

*The aims.*—The aims can be condensed into four major categories calling for values (1) in *social-civic responsibilities* broadly conceived, (2) in *recreational or avocational participation*, (3) in *physical efficiency*, and (4) in *occupational training*. There is a remarkable approach in the twenty-five statements analyzed to unanimity of acceptance of these four major aims of the secondary school.

It has been assumed in this attempt to summarize that such categories as *providing general or liberal training* (Aim 1 in Fig. 1) and *preparing for the needs of life* (Aim 2) are so broad and comprehensive as to require at least the degree of particularization afforded in the four aims as stated. Training for *morality and character* (4), *religion* (5), *domestic responsibility* (6), and *leadership* (7) may be looked upon as aspects of the large aim of training for *social-civic responsibility* (3) broadly conceived.

*The functions.*—For the most part, under the remaining rubrics have been placed those purposes of secondary education which appear predominantly to have been intended more as *proximate* aims than as *ultimate* aims. With only occasional exceptions, they are in the nature of purposes of secondary education or conditions under which it must go forward in order the better to achieve the ultimate goals or aims. For want of a more satisfactory term, they are here designated as *functions*.

In the first of these functions, *intellectual training* (11), we have an instance of a difficulty sometimes encountered in such a compilation as the present one, namely, that of reproducing accurately

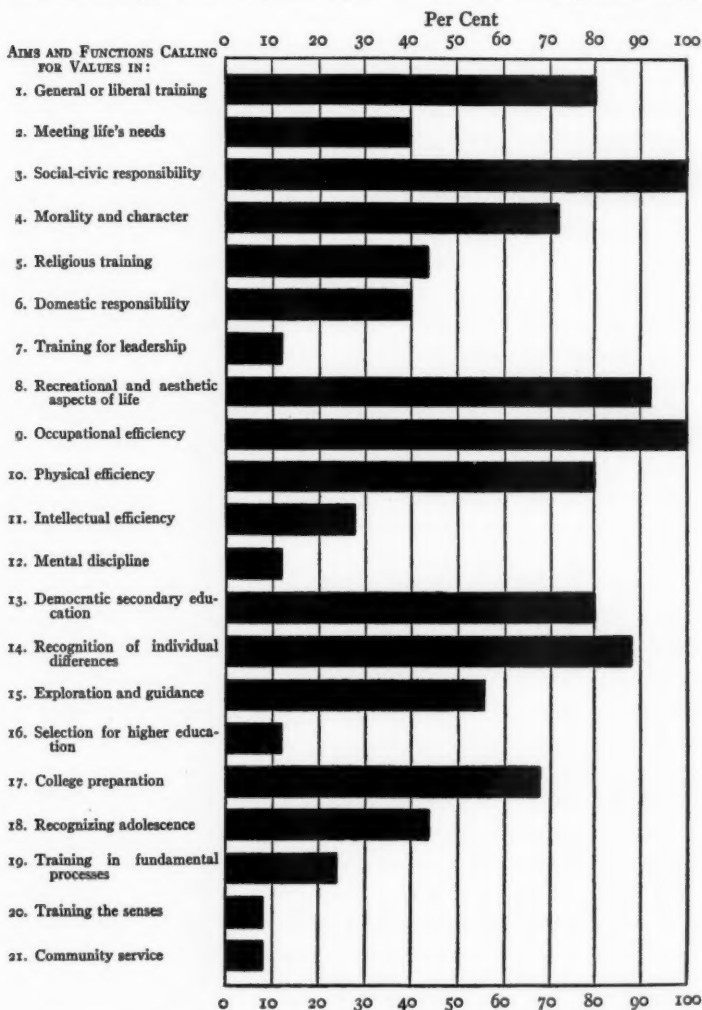


FIG. 1.—Percentage of statements of twenty-five leaders recognizing each aim and function of the secondary school.

the organization of aims proposed by the authors consulted. Some at least of those understood to posit this purpose propose it as an ultimate goal of secondary education rather than as a proximate goal. To others, intellectualization appears to be more in the nature of a precondition to efficiency with respect to the aims. The difference between the statements classified under *intellectual efficiency* and those classified under *mental discipline* (12) is essentially that those proposing the former refuse to accept the latter in the indiscriminating form in which it is usually advocated, asking rather for a high level of mental performance and insisting upon mental efficiency along essential lines as an objective to be consciously striven for rather than as a by-product of the educative process, as this value was formerly conceived.

The function of achieving *democratic secondary education* (13) signifies, in the minds of those who posit it, bringing within the influence of the modern high school, so far as possible, "all of the children of all of the people." Significant evidences of the degree to which this has been accomplished have appeared in print in recent years, among them being data presented by Inglis,<sup>1</sup> Counts,<sup>2</sup> and Byrne.<sup>3</sup> The growth within a single state, Minnesota, during a period of three decades may be shown by stating that the enrolment in the state high schools represented the following proportions of the total population of the state fourteen to seventeen years of age, inclusive: in 1890, 3.6 per cent; in 1900, 9.0 per cent; in 1910, 16.7 per cent; and in 1920, 27.4 per cent. These figures mean that during this period of thirty years the proportion was almost octupled. This is commendable progress. Even with these rapid strides in popularization, however, the state has much left to do before desirable universalization of secondary education will be achieved.

Democratizing secondary education requires the *recognition of individual differences* (14), and this in turn calls for *exploration*

<sup>1</sup> Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 119. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918.

<sup>2</sup> George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922.

<sup>3</sup> Lee Byrne, "How Much Education Have the American People?" *School and Society*, XV (March 18 and 25, 1922), 287-92, 327-31.

and guidance (15), exploration in the sense of aid in guidance by affording the student opportunities for trying out a variety of subjects and subject groups as well as for being tried out by them. *Selection for higher education* (16) is not often called for separately in this body of literature because it is comprehended by the preceding purpose and also because some of the writers object to the former process when narrowly conceived. It is not unlikely that all those who posit the function of exploration and guidance would be disposed to agree with Suzzallo when he infers that a new motive "has transmuted the older and more or less subconscious function of selection and rejection of students into the contemporaneous and quite conscious policy of distributing school attendants more effectively within the complex ramifications of the modern school system. . . . This distributive function of the school operates within the school as educational guidance and across the gap between school and working life as vocational guidance and placement."<sup>1</sup> It must be obvious that the popularization of secondary education, posited by almost all of the writers consulted, will, to the extent that it is achieved, increase our responsibilities in guidance. The function of exploration and guidance must be regarded as one of the most important in the modern secondary school.

*Preparation for higher institutions* (17), according to fully two-thirds of those whose statements have been summarized, is still to be retained as an objective for the group of students for whom advanced training is appropriate. In an important sense this preparation is analogous to the occupational training (Aim 9) to be provided for those not going to college, since special work taken by those who plan to continue their training in the higher schools should displace the special vocational courses for those who enter employment at the close of the secondary-school period. In this sense preparation for college is hardly a function but a phase of the aim of training for occupational efficiency.

The claim is often made that the public high school is becoming less and less a preparatory school, but we are seldom confronted by

<sup>1</sup> Henry Suzzallo, in Introduction to *The Junior High School* (pp. iv-v) by Leonard V. Koos. New York: Harcourt, Brace & Co., 1920.



facts in proof of the claim. It happens that the study of the degree of popularization of secondary education in Minnesota, from which citation has already been made, was accompanied by an inquiry into the relation of the growth of the high schools to the growth of the University of Minnesota. A significant measure of the relation was the percentage which the number of Freshmen in the University in any school year were of the number of graduates of the state high schools in the school year preceding. This measure may be regarded as a critical one, since the great bulk of the Freshmen—approximately nine-tenths in 1916-17—are graduates of the state high schools. Figure 2 shows that for the five-year period 1889-93 the proportion which the University Freshmen were of the high-school graduates was only a little less than 100 per cent. This is the same thing as saying that during this half-decade the high schools were predominantly college-preparatory institutions. During succeeding half-decades the proportion declined rapidly, until by 1914-18 it had dropped to less than 25 per cent. In the meantime, however, other higher institutions in the state began to attract the high-school graduates, until, during most of the ten-year period from 1910 to 1920, their total collegiate enrolment roughly equaled that of the University. It cannot be far from the truth to say that these other higher institutions are enrolling as Freshmen high-school graduates roughly equal in number to those entering the University. The proportion of high-school graduates going on to higher institutions for the state as a whole is, therefore, probably between 40 and 50 per cent. This percentage would be much smaller if all students, instead of graduates only, were represented in the computations, since large proportions are eliminated before graduation. We may say, then, that in Minnesota the public high school, judged by the proportion of students continuing their education, changed during a quarter of a century from an institution predominantly college preparatory in function to an institution predominantly *non-college* preparatory.

There is no reason to believe that the facts in any other mid-western state differ notably from those just cited. This is a shift of profound significance for those who have to deal with the problem of college entrance. While we may be disposed to agree with those

leaders in secondary education whose statements have been introduced in the analysis here summarized that the high school must

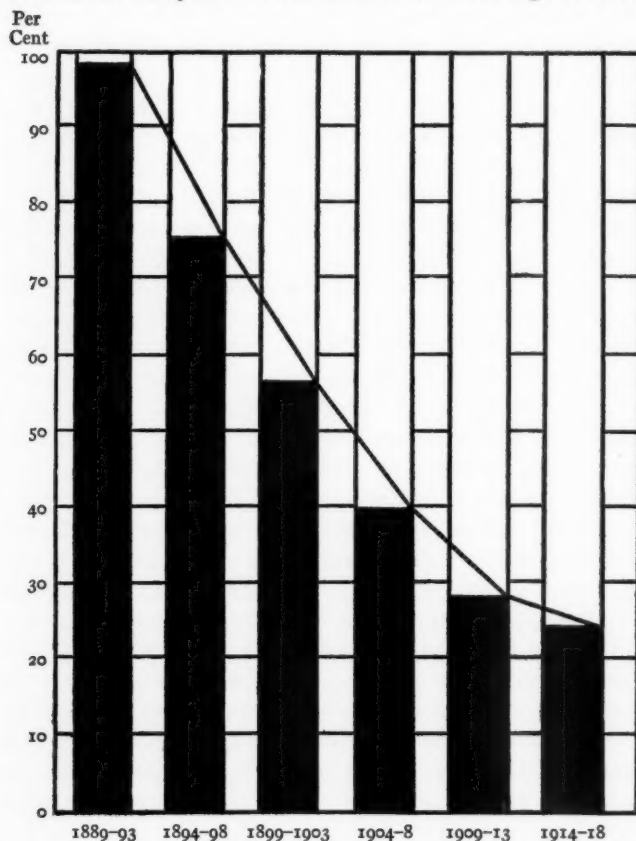


FIG. 2.—Percentage which the number of Freshmen in the University of Minnesota were of the number of graduates of the state high schools by five-year periods from 1889 to 1918. (Adapted from Rodney M. West and Leonard V. Koos, *The Growth of the University in the Next Quarter Century*. Report of the Survey Commission I. Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, Vol. XXIII, No. 25 [June 21, 1920].)

continue to serve as a preparatory institution, we ought at the same time to be on our guard against placing strictures upon its

service to the majority of the students enrolled, that is, the non-college-going group. This we are likely to do by adhering to conventional practices in certification for admission to college which reflect an assumption that the secondary school is little, if any, more than a short and narrow isthmus between elementary and higher education.

Two additional functions are recognized in a large proportion of the statements represented. Almost one-half of the entire group emphasize the desirability of *recognizing the nature of the students at adolescence* (18), a period into which they come during their early teens and, to some extent, previously. According to approximately one-fourth of the group, the secondary school must give *training in the fundamental processes* (19), that is, in the subjects which constitute the tools of learning, such as oral and written expression, reading, and computational skills.

Leaving out of account the purposes infrequently advocated, a composite of the statements urges that the modern secondary school have the following as its major aims: training for social-civic responsibility broadly conceived to include moral, religious, and domestic aspects; training for recreational and aesthetic participation; training for physical efficiency, and training for occupational efficiency, which means college preparation for the group going on to higher educational institutions. At the same time the educational processes are to be maintained at as high a mental level as possible, with the aim in view of achieving intellectual efficiency in these important aspects of living. To facilitate the achievement of these aims for any large proportion of the population, the secondary school must perform the following functions: democratize secondary education, recognize individual differences, provide for exploration and guidance, recognize the nature of the student at adolescence, and provide training in the fundamental processes.

*Identity and differentiation of the purposes of the junior and senior high schools.*—With these concepts of the aims and functions of secondary education before us, we can proceed to consider the question of which of them apply to the full period of secondary education and which, if any, pertain peculiarly to either

the junior or the senior high school unit. Before attempting this canvass, it is desirable to admit that during the examination of the literature it was not always clear as to how long a period of secondary education each of the writers had in mind. Some, at least, were thinking of a six-year period. Still others were referring to the four-year period in most frequent use. It is the impression of the present writer that the remaining authorities had neither of these periods specifically in mind but were considering the rôle of secondary education irrespective of its duration. There seems little, if anything, on this score to invalidate the sort of canvass now to be essayed.

It seems wise to accept the social-civic aim as applying to the full period of secondary education, that is, without distinction in the extent of obligation in the two units. Doubtless the means of achieving the aim must be different for the two levels of education concerned, but the obligation with respect to the aim is common to the junior high school and the senior high school. The same thing may be said of the recreational and health aims. Concerning the aim of occupational efficiency, however, practically all of the writers on the subject agree that this is an obligation peculiar to the senior high school and one which the junior high school should seldom, if ever, be asked to discharge. The period of specialization should be postponed for most students at least until the end of the ninth grade, the only exceptions being in the case of those who are over-age or who seem destined to discontinue their education with the close of the junior high school period. Even for these, training should be much more general than special.

The obligation for the performance of at least three of the five functions lies with almost equal weight on the two units of the new secondary school. These functions are the achievement of a democratic secondary education, the recognition of individual differences, and the recognition of the nature of the child at adolescence. There is, doubtless, a small proportion of the population who, although they can profit from junior high school education, ought not to continue into the senior high school, even with all possible adaptation of courses to meet the needs of the less capable. The proportion, however, is hardly large enough to free the upper unit to a marked extent from the performance of the function first

named. Because individual differences persist—even enlarge—in the later high-school years, their recognition is equally essential in the junior and senior divisions. Adolescence also is a characteristic of the students in both divisions and must, therefore, be recognized in both, although early adolescence may require somewhat different treatment than do the later portions of the period.

In the case of the two remaining functions, exploration and guidance and training in the fundamental processes, there must be a marked degree of differentiation of obligation in the two units. Although they are functions of the full period of secondary education, the burden of their performance rests more heavily on the junior high school than on the senior high school. This is true in the case of training in the fundamental processes for the reason that equipping the pupil with the tools of an education must be one of the first concerns of the lower school, the proportional emphasis decreasing as he moves upward in the school system. The senior high school grades will continue to be responsible for some of the training in the vernacular, while the junior high school will have even larger responsibilities along this line besides additional duties in the way of imparting computational skills, etc.

The more important differentiation seems to be in the case of exploration and guidance. As clarification of the rôle of the junior high school proceeds, there is a mounting conviction that one of its major functions is exploration and guidance. The Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, whose statement is represented in the present analysis, expressed itself as follows:

The six years to be devoted to secondary education may well be divided into two periods, which may be designated as the junior and senior periods. In the junior period emphasis should be placed upon the attempt to help the pupil to explore his own aptitudes and to make at least provisional choice of the kinds of work to which he will devote himself. In the senior period emphasis should be given to training in the fields thus chosen.<sup>1</sup>

Glass, one of the most helpful leaders in the junior high school movement, recently emphasized the scope of the guidance function of the new unit as follows:

The junior high school has been variously entitled as the finding, the sorting, the trying-out, and the testing period of the public school system. It is a

<sup>1</sup> *Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 18. Bureau of Education Bulletin No. 35, 1918.

probationary period before the vital question of educational or vocational choice is finally determined. Exploration of individual differences, the revelation of educational and vocational opportunities adaptable to individual differences, guidance of educational or vocational choice, equalization of opportunities, the adaptation of educational offerings to ascertained individual needs rather than the conforming of all pupils to one educational pattern, and the stimulation of educational or vocational vision which conditions all progress in secondary education—all these and other purposes to adapt the educational program to the “individual” are the objectives of the junior high school.<sup>1</sup>

It may be too obvious to require mention that the two chief differences in aims and functions of the two secondary-school units as here posited are *complementary* to each other. The outstanding difference in their aims is that the senior high school should to some extent be given over to occupational specialization, inclusive of college preparation. The distinction with respect to functions is that the junior high school must stress exploration and guidance, which in the nature of things must *precede* occupational and other specialization. One of the principal defects of the conventional four-year high school is that during this brief period we have been trying to achieve both of these purposes simultaneously for a given student without being fully aware of the fact. The inevitable result is the curricular confusion which brings the student to the end of his high-school career with “a little of everything but not much of anything” to his credit in the records of the institution from which he is being graduated.

On account of this significant differentiation of aims and functions which is already well on the road to achievement in many junior-senior high-school systems, it seems logical to insist that the college maintain the laissez-faire policy toward the junior high school curriculum. It should not interfere with this curriculum just as it now does not attempt to control the content of the curriculum of the eight-year elementary school. One should bear in mind the fact that this is adding only a single year to the eight-year period over which the college does not now endeavor to exercise any measure of control. This seems a small concession to make

<sup>1</sup> James M. Glass, “The Junior High School,” *New Republic*, XXXVI (November 7, 1923), 20.

in view of the momentous shift in the rôle of the high school shown in the increased popularization of this period of education and the decreased proportion of high-school graduates who go on to collegiate levels of training. Relinquishment of collegiate control in this respect would not mean that junior high school authorities would put in operation a policy of never affording students the opportunity to take courses peculiar to the needs of those destined for intellectual pursuits. It would merely concede discretion to those in charge of junior high schools as well as permit students who have taken no such courses to compass college-entrance requirements during the senior high school period.

Two additional considerations should tend to remove some part at least of the apprehension of those who are opposed to the college giving up control of the curriculum of the ninth school year in this way. One of these is what has just been demonstrated as the essential continuity in *most* of the aims and functions over the full period of secondary education, aims and functions with respect to which there is a large approach to unanimity among the leaders in the field and which on this account are likely to influence practice profoundly in the near future. Continuity of application of most of the aims and functions should reassure us on the score of a large body of common curricular content for all students, especially when these aims and functions point to a substantial core of subjects prescribed for all students. The other consideration is that on account of the slow and conservative rate at which curricular changes come to pass, even in school systems where the junior high school organization has been effected, for some years at least most graduates certificated to college from three-year senior high schools will have taken ninth-grade work not strikingly different, as to required and elective subjects, from that now taken in the first year of the four-year high schools. This is far from a constructive argument and is small comfort to those who advocate the organization of junior high schools, but it should not be without some passing influence. The more cogent reason for the *laissez-faire* policy of the college toward the junior high school curriculum must, of course, remain the differentiation of aims and functions in the junior and senior divisions as this has been summarized.



## CURRICULAR PRACTICES IN THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

It remains to consider briefly the course offerings in the junior high school as they relate to the problem of sequence or articulation *within* this lower unit and as this problem in turn is affected by certifying students to college solely on the four-year high-school basis. Careful scrutiny of the programs of study in any large number of junior high schools makes it evident that large proportions of the reorganizations are unaccompanied by profound curricular changes. There are instances, of course, of significant changes along these lines, but the notable absence of genuine curricular modifications is discouraging to those who are hopeful of immediate reforms. This too frequent lack of change has two aspects: (1) that which concerns subject representation and (2) that which pertains to reorganization within any particular subject or subject group. The former may be illustrated by two published studies, those of Douglass and Rodgers. Douglass made his canvass<sup>1</sup> almost a decade ago. An examination of his tables and charts shows that large proportions of the schools of that day had not made significant additions to the course offerings in the seventh and eighth grades. The study leads to at least one other important conclusion, namely, that so far as subject representation and subjects required or left optional are concerned, there was much the same kind of break between the eighth and ninth grades in the junior high schools as in the schools operating on the eight-four plan. Rodgers' more recent study<sup>2</sup> provokes similar inferences. Many schools effect material and valuable changes, but others stop far short of this.

Frequent examination of content and considerable observation of instruction *within the courses* produce much the same impression. For instance, although we have courses bearing the name "English" required throughout the three junior high school grades, we often have the same break in internal content perpetuated as

<sup>1</sup> Aubrey Augustus Douglass, *The Junior High School*, pp. 77-83. Fifteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part III. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1917.

<sup>2</sup> J. Harvey Rodgers, "Junior High School Curricula and Programs," *School Review*, XXIX (March, 1921), 198-205.

obtained typically in the conventional organization. We find a shift from oral reading in the eighth grade to the semi-philological and analytic study of literature in the ninth grade, and we observe another shift from a treatment of formal grammar and little else in the eighth grade to written composition in the ninth grade. Examples could be cited for other subjects and subject groups.

It is clear that the junior high schools are far from *universally* achieving the articulation, the bridging of the curricular gap, between the eighth and the ninth grades which has been and still is one of the favorite arguments arrayed in support of the movement. As already admitted by implication, a prominent factor in the delay is a too prevalent conservatism in curricular matters on the part of those in charge of the junior high schools, a conservatism born of tradition. Anyone, however, who is in touch with the junior high school situation soon becomes aware of the unfulfilled desire of many school authorities to make substantial modifications, unfulfilled because of the fear that the modified courses in the ninth grade will not be accepted toward college entrance. It is to be deplored that one of the most promising steps in reform which the American schools have experienced should be thus delayed. However, it cannot be more than *delay*, since recognition of the needs of the reorganization in the way of a restatement of college-entrance requirements for junior-senior high-school systems is certain to come. The question is not whether but when. It seems only natural that an organization like the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, which was sufficiently forward-looking when launched to achieve a wide-scale operation of admission to college by certificate at a time when admission by examination was almost the universal procedure, should shortly take steps toward encouraging thoroughgoing junior high school reorganization by freeing the new unit from such bondage to the college in curricular matters as it is now under.

## STUDENT CITIZENSHIP AT THE SENN HIGH SCHOOL

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The term "student citizenship" at once suggests student self-government, which, in its true sense, means that the individual controls himself and later becomes capable of co-operating with other self-controlling individuals to make it easier for still others to achieve self-control. The proper function of all student activity, curricular and extra-curricular, is to produce an environment in which the student who has already learned to control himself may help others to work out their problems and in which the student who has not learned self-control is constantly offered attractive opportunities to form proper habits.

Even when conventional and traditional methods are in use, curricular régime offers these opportunities in proportion to the individual teacher's power to bring human life and subject-matter into living contact. The modern project method—in fact, all teaching which aims to arouse intensive thinking in the individual child—reaches the height of social self-development.

The extra-curricular activities, however, offer the greatest opportunities for putting knowledge, spiritualized by ideals, into use for the community good, thereby enabling the student to develop into the citizen, conscious of his responsibility and power.

Organization and co-operative management are necessary in extra-curricular activities if they are to form an efficient medium through which pupils and teachers may work out their ideals of life. In each school this organization will be individual, depending as it must on the needs of the situation and on the idea animating the person who fosters it.

In the Senn High School, the system of student government, initiated by a principal fully aware of the importance of civic enterprise for citizenship training, has grown up with the school, which is now ten years old. It came into form in 1917 with the desire of an

unusually alert freshman class to help the incoming Freshmen to orient themselves. From this it grew into a sophomore council. As that class was promoted, it carried on its civic spirit until presently there were four councils. Meanwhile, the division rooms, groups of approximately forty students each, had organized, elected officers, and were holding one regular club meeting a week at which room affairs, problems of high-school courses, vocations, colleges, etc., were discussed. The class elections from the first were orderly affairs. The candidates, nominated by petitions signed by their classmates, made speeches at election assemblies and were voted for by secret ballot. Assemblies by years in Senn Hall were also falling into a regular schedule. Then a need appeared for some general group which should be able to view more completely the work of the whole school. In 1921 representatives of the four councils planned a new body, since called the All-School Council, made up of the presidents of the classes, who are always elected from the A sections of the classes, and representatives from the B sections. There is also a 4 A representative since the 4 A president is the presiding officer. During the last school year there was added a 4 B vice-president, because five of the six senior officers come from the A or graduating section. One period a day, the fourth on our program, is set aside: Tuesday for the All-School Council, Wednesday for division-room clubs, Thursday for large assemblies, and Friday for academic clubs and class councils. Councils, clubs, and committees have faculty advisers. Naturally, the initiative often comes from them; often, however, it comes from the students. In either case the project is worked out by the faculty advisers and students, the details being student work practically always.

The presidents of the room clubs meet in groups by years with the principal and council adviser to work out plans by which the division rooms may co-operate more closely with the councils and to provide another opportunity for the discussion of civic school ideas, another channel through which an understanding attitude, that mysterious and mighty thing called school spirit, may flow out to the school as a whole.

Each council has five committees: social, publicity, scholarship, make-Senn-beautiful, and courtesy. Once or twice a semester joint

committee meetings are called for the four years, with the faculty advisers and the principal, in order to discuss common problems. Uniform procedure is planned in many cases. The Make-Senn-Beautiful Committee, for example, adopted last year an all-school schedule on which to grade the rooms for neatness. The Scholarship Committee about the same time worked out a uniform method of determining scholarship averages by rooms and of making graphs. These meetings form still another channel through which the school is brought into conscious contact with its guiding spirit.

It is at once obvious that there appear here several types of groups unified by their common interest, their common function, or their common purpose, or, as is often the case, by all three. There is little apparent machinery. The plan has never been crystallized into written form. There is no constitution. Live things grow and change, flow with life to the extent that they are open to the urge of that life.

Initiative may come from any committee, any council, any division-room group. There is, however, a sequence for handling the idea. If it arises in the committee and applies to that year only, it goes directly into the committee report in a council meeting and is acted upon. If it arises in a division room, it is carried to the council by the delegates from the room and there referred to the proper committee or discussed by the whole body and referred back to the rooms for a referendum vote. If it arises in the council itself, it is referred to the rooms. If, however, the idea is of interest or value to more than one year, it is laid before the councils concerned, directly by a committee or indirectly through the All-School Council. Any idea which affects the whole school goes through the class council to the All-School Council and is referred back with modifications or suggestions to all four class councils, there to be ratified or vetoed. In a very important matter which affects school policy, spirit, or tradition, or which relates to the standing of the school in the community, considerable time is taken, as the subject is discussed in each council, in each division room, and again in each council, this time for the purpose of decision and definite recommendation; the final announcement is made by the All-School Council.

An extremely important issue involving the community may, of course, arise in such a way that immediate action is necessary. In

that case the All-School Council may at any time call a meeting and, after laying its plan before the principal or adviser, send a committee to act at once, later reporting to the class councils its purpose, method, and results.

All this may seem complicated, but in actual practice it is very simple, since it follows perfectly natural methods of progression and co-operation and is not the product of an arbitrarily made constitution but of actual needs as they have arisen in an alert and growing body of citizens.

The widespread co-operation is made definite and saved from the blunders and the misstatements likely to follow the oral passing of information by a system of reports mimeographed and distributed by the office. Each class-council report goes to every division room in that year, to every other class council, and to the All-School Council. The All-School Council report is read at the meeting of every class council, the president of which, who is a member of the All-School Council, reports side issues discussed and answers questions. Explanations may be made in the division rooms by room delegates who are present at the class council meeting and hear the president's comments. It is the intention, however, of the secretaries and advisers to make the reports not only very clear and definite but expressive of the spirit of the discussion.

So much for the machinery. It should be observed that there is not a single unnecessary cog, that no part of it has been added as ornamentation, and that it is all the logical working out of a real demand for efficiency at some point.

The next and really vital question is: Has anything been accomplished except the building of a set of machinery? Obviously, things have happened, since no wheel has been set in motion for a purpose other than to give power to the functioning of an already conscious desire. Examples will show this best since they are manifestations in terms of life of that spirit which is the only real accomplishment and which cannot be expressed in words or phrases.

One problem in a busy social section of a great city is that of advertising, forbidden by board of education rule within the school but a constant temptation to everyone who has children or friends among the students and who sees the opportunity offered by access to the students and through them to their homes. Ten years ago,

in spite of board rules, the school was flooded with advertisements for commercial dances and social affairs entirely outside of school management. These were never sponsored by anyone in particular, but the notices appeared as if by magic on bulletin boards, under moldings, and in other conspicuous places. The matter was brought up in council meetings several times, the reason for the rule always explained, and slowly the passing about of advertisements was discontinued. They are on view at the neighboring stores; piles of them lie on the counters; people interested pocket them, but the teachers did not see as many as half a dozen in the school last year. It is simply, in student parlance, "not the thing" to distribute them in school.

As another expression of this new attitude, an incident which occurred last semester may be cited. A neighboring dance hall posted large signs throughout the district announcing "Senn" dances at certain hours on Saturday. There was a time (the school is only ten years old and has had all of its traditions to make) when this situation could not have been submitted to a council group without careful individual preparation, but it was handled as a matter of course and a committee sent at once to interview the manager and tell him that although Senn students might attend the dances as private citizens they did not attend in their official capacity as Senn citizens and that, in addition, his use of the school name was prejudicing the better element against him. He saw the point and promised not to advertise again in that way.

There was at one time much criticism of the policy of the *News*, the weekly paper, with regard to the publication of class items, especially since the Sophomores felt that they were being discriminated against in favor of the Freshmen. The matter was discussed in the All-School Council, and the claims of both classes were heard. The secretary was then instructed to invite the editor-in-chief to be present at the next council meeting. There the whole argument was laid before him. A full discussion followed, during which the editor explained his policies and his difficulties, and the groups arrived at an understanding. This removed sources of irritation, as understanding always does, and made clear the basis on which work was accepted or rejected. Out of this incident there grew a discussion



which finally resulted in a committee report giving the following creed for leaders in student activities. This is quoted from the minutes and is submitted as a reasonable solution for most of life's social problems.

1. Personal feeling and desire for individual glory have no place in public functions.
2. Constructive criticism should always follow destructive criticism.
3. The first step is always to find reasons for a condition. Then the remedies may be intelligently considered.

On account of the crowded conditions and a large campus used by the public, neatness of buildings and grounds has been a constant problem. Device after device was used in the early years to arouse public opinion and start action. Sometimes a class council took charge of some particular matter for a time, as when the senior class planned to give the grounds an annual spring cleaning. Then it was necessary to put much enthusiasm into the movement to get people to work, and between times there were long periods of inactivity. Now, committees, separately and jointly, keep the public conscience alive, a difficult matter when every room is in use by a different class every period of the day. The only principle on which training for citizenship can be based, under the physical difficulties of the present system, is individual and group responsibility for the good of the community. This is, after all, the essence of mature citizenship in the larger community.

Occasionally, a teacher has brought into a council meeting a statement of a problem in some part of the school, and a campaign has been worked out to solve that problem. An unusually flagrant example of cheating brought about a very impressive campaign for a finer sense of honor in all of the classes.

An energetic member of the All-School Council, who was also business manager of a school publication and who is planning to become an accountant, worked out a set of figures on his own initiative and presented them to the All-School Council, showing the amounts that might be saved the school annually if it had its own printing press. He was asked by the council to continue his work by getting from the treasurer (a member of the faculty) definite costs of school printing for several years back and investigating the

cost of new and second-hand machinery. The arguments set forth in these figures were presented to the superintendent of schools, who recommended the installation of a plant. There are other ways of getting printing presses, but if anyone thinks that an outfit asked for on the principal's initiative and announced to the school would be cherished as this one will be, he lays himself open to the charge of not knowing human nature.

Certain sections of the annual and of the monthly magazine, the *Forum*, are set aside for each class. There was a time when material for these publications was slow in coming in; a committee picked at random or often one or two members of the committee were responsible for the securing of the material. Now, supplying these pages is a definitely recognized activity of the class councils, and the work is done according to the plans of a regularly appointed council committee.

Feeling the need of a closer organization of athletes for the purpose of building up school spirit and of establishing standards of eligibility, the All-School Council organized a Letter Club, suggested a faculty adviser, and set the club to work. Out of that membership there was organized, at a time of particular need, a group who called themselves "Aces," named from the initials which stand for their purpose, Anti-Cake-Eaters. This group, although entirely unofficial, did a good piece of work at a critical time in the school's progress and undoubtedly helped not only in reforming several undesirable citizens but in establishing a finer and higher ideal of conduct. Both of these groups are now devoting their energies to a campaign against smoking in the vicinity of the school.

The institution which we call the Senior Sponsors and which is often called the big-brother or big-sister movement started when individual members of the Senior Council assumed responsibility for helping incoming Freshmen to get the right attitude toward Senn life. This proved at once acceptable to the Freshmen and to the faculty and has grown until now, with fifty freshman rooms in its care, a large part of the senior class is at work under the direction of the dean and a committee of the Senior Council. The practical working out of the plan has been attended with numerous difficulties because the school is overcrowded and running on the shift system,

but there is no question in the mind of Freshman, Senior, or teacher that the spirit and attitude of the Freshmen have changed. It is too soon yet to give figures on what we earnestly hope is decreased mortality in the first year, but the tone of the freshman rooms and the freshman assemblies is the best sort of indirect evidence. The Seniors, too, are taking on more responsibility and a more conscious citizenship as they try to live so that their freshman friends may be proud of them.

Last year the All-School Council realized that traffic in and about the building was fast becoming a great problem. Moving nearly four thousand students every forty-five minutes without accident or tardiness in a building originally planned for two thousand students is a real engineering feat. Several times spasmodic attempts were made to reserve certain stairways for certain directions of movement, but no organized system which affected the whole building had been tried. As congestion increased, the All-School Council, working with the assistant principal, put into force a systematized plan which established lines of travel throughout the building, limiting all principal corridors and stairways to one-way traffic. R.O.T.C. guards were put at intersections and corners to remind students of the rules. Many people were seriously inconvenienced; a few traveled longer distances; but the students developed a sense of the necessity of planning their movements and of general economy of time and space that was very valuable. All of the halls are lined with lockers, and some of these had to be changed. Accidents, however, ceased. The plan was objected to by many students, but every complaint that came to the All-School Council was answered with the request that the classes concerned should consider the good of the whole student body and should have a sufficiently strong spirit of fair play to give the plan a reasonable trial. It became clear little by little that physical difficulties were proving the plan impracticable in some details. Last semester the routing of the stairways was made permanent, and R.O.T.C. guards were appointed for strategic posts. To each council organization has been added a committee whose duty it is to make a careful study of traffic problems and suggest at joint meetings any regulations or additions required by the situation. Meanwhile, the attitude of the students has

greatly improved. They move more steadily; there are fewer tangles caused by people stopping to gossip. There is, in short, a clearer consciousness in the school mind of the necessity of co-operation and a more thoughtful consideration of group needs.

A recent incident growing out of the traffic rules may serve as an illustration of student citizenship. A faithful guard standing at the top of a one-way stairway, with his back to the hall, put out his arm peremptorily before a short person whose height alone registered on his consciousness and ordered her to go the other way. A few minutes later a complaint of discourtesy was received by the faculty adviser of the All-School Council from the teacher who had been stopped. The student commander of the guards, a commissioned officer in the R.O.T.C., was at once notified. In the course of the investigation it developed that, although the guard was in this case entirely innocent of any misdemeanor except failure to recognize a faculty voice, he might easily have been guilty of rudeness. Orders had been given him to stop everyone, regardless of position. The whole matter was made a subject of considerable discussion at an All-School Council meeting. The guard was completely exonerated, and his commanding officer, a member of the council, explained that if the private had been rude the fault would have lain with the commander and proposed going himself to the teacher in question to explain that his subordinate had not recognized her, that he bore the apologies of the council, and that careful instructions were being given to all of the guards to permit teachers to exercise their own judgment about following the traffic rules. It would, no doubt, have been a great shock to teachers of a generation ago to hear students discussing whether or not they should be permitted to go up certain stairways at times when students were going down; it may be a shock to many teachers now. But this was not a rule laid down by the teachers to be obeyed by the students; neither was it, as those suspicious of new methods may feel, a rule laid down by the students to be obeyed by the teachers. It was a new and democratic institution, a rule made by the teachers and the students working together for the purpose of making life safer for both groups. The question was whether the law should be obeyed by both groups concerned. The writer ventures the assertion that in the discussion a new sense

of values was aroused in the young people through the realization of the fact that, although teachers ought to follow the rules whenever possible, and undoubtedly are willing to do so, there are times when mature judgment and discrimination must be trusted to discern the proper action, whether in accordance with the letter of the law or not. In other words, they came to a recognition of a teacher's judgment and a respect for it, a real understanding of the whole problem of authority, which marked a definite step in citizenship.

The school also has its problems with regard to municipal transportation. The street-car service in the community had been steadily growing worse for five years as the community had been growing larger, and changes in street-car schedules have been only temporary make-shifts. At the request of the Junior Council, the All-School Council wrote the street-car company asking for an appointment. The company answered by offering to send two traffic managers for a conference with the school. The council prepared and sent through the English classes a questionnaire on transportation difficulties and organized the mass of resulting information. It was both impressive and conclusive; we were sure of it, and the traffic men admitted it. Since then the conditions have been greatly improved. No principal working alone with these executives would have had the power to impress these men as our principal did, surrounded by a group of quiet and respectful, but persistent and well-informed, boys and girls. Moreover, the young people learned through this experience the proper method of attack on community abuses. Not hatred, not resentment, not empty threats, but a dignified and respectful complaint, in the spirit of certainty that public utilities exist to serve the public.

While this article was being prepared an interesting situation arose in the senior class elections. For the first time in the school's history of nomination by petition there were six candidates nominated. That meant that by the customary plurality vote in a class of two hundred and fifty students a minority of fifty might elect a president. Gradually the realization of this situation spread until, on the afternoon of the day before election, a group went informally to the principal to ask that something be done. He laid the situation before the members of his class in social problems, a class which

included students from every senior division room, and after their discussion decided to call a class meeting. The situation was presented and explained as a question which would affect the whole future history of senior elections. An overwhelming vote decided to have all senior officers elected by a majority vote in the future, the first ballot being considered a primary vote except in cases where a majority of the votes are cast for a single candidate. The Seniors who were studying civics and United States history saw at once that their experience was entirely in support of the theory which they had been taught. A civics teacher explained any technical questions which arose. The primary vote was then taken. The spirit of the meeting was noteworthy. The six hundred Seniors were grave, composed, and very serious, realizing that they were in truth making the sort of history of which they had often read. It was probably the best lesson in civics which their senior year had offered.

Perhaps the most important piece of community work ever done by the All-School Council was in response to an emergency. Some of the city newspapers started a campaign of attack on the morals of city high-school students, charging all sorts of looseness in social conduct, making rash and exaggerated statements, and branding the whole school community as guilty of all of the misdemeanors of the few always found in a large group. They named the Senn High School and one other high school as especially culpable. Other newspapers followed suit, and within two days not only the whole city but the whole country had heard of the rumored shamelessness. "The whole country" is a phrase advisedly used. We employed a clipping bureau to prove it. In a week we had twenty-five clippings from papers all over the United States repeating the news that the Senn High School had been ordered to eliminate jazz, immodest dress, joy riding, etc. If one were to judge from these clippings, there had been an investigation which had disclosed some shocking conditions. No uninformed person could have escaped the conclusion that the Chicago high schools were educating their pupils principally in vice and immorality. These twenty-five clippings represented an amazing variety and range of city papers; Los Angeles, California; Des Moines, Iowa; Atlanta, Georgia; Knoxville,



Tennessee; Erie, Pennsylvania; etc., were represented. With this information in their hands and indignation burning in their hearts, a committee of the All-School Council, appointed at a special meeting called by the members and headed by the senior president, met by appointment with the superintendent of the city schools and laid before him their plan, which was, briefly, to interview every editor in Chicago if necessary. Armed with the authority of the superintendent, a note of introduction from the principal, and the package of clippings, the committee saw the editors and entered vigorous protest against the branding of a high school in the minds of the whole country by such sweeping assertions. The faculty adviser who went with them was never more proud of her school than as she listened to those manly young fellows (this committee happened to be made up of boys only) defending their community and urging upon the editors not only the unfairness of permitting the publication of such statements in cases where very few were guilty but the definite lack of patriotism and civic pride evidenced by printing articles which carried such an untrue impression of the Chicago schools to the whole nation. The response of the editors was in every case as fine as the idealism of the young people. The editors of two of the largest papers, one morning and one evening, voluntarily gave their word that no such article would appear again in their papers as long as they were in control. During the next week every paper published both editorials and news articles, the latter in many cases by the best specialty writers, evidencing a definite change of spirit. Nor has there been any other expression of that attitude of cynicism and flippancy so common before this incident, which occurred two years ago. The Senn weekly is on the exchange list of these newspapers; occasionally a school editorial or an article is referred to in their columns. Whatever advertising the high schools of Chicago have had for two years has been at least tolerant and friendly. That means much to the Chicago schools in the understanding of their students. At least our student organizations are given a chance to work out theories of training for citizenship responsibilities undisturbed by storms of scorn, accusations, and misunderstanding.

Such cases as these are merely incidents—no more, no less—in the daily life of student co-operating groups. There are times when



they seem to be accomplishing nothing, but all life is like that, and they are, we believe, part of life. When the emergency comes, the organization is at hand, ready, alert, and trained. That, too, is like the life of the body politic and civic into which our young people are to enter.

An important question arises, Do our young people, so trained in civic community responsibility, carry their training into practical expression in the larger community? This, because of the very nature of the case, cannot be proved. We work not only with the present but with the future. Yet, when our spirits waver at new revelations of graft and corruption in all sorts of unexpected places, the reaction comes in a stirring challenge to us who, more than any other people, direct the thinking of the next generation. It need not always be so. The schools have always taught knowledge and indirectly, through the experiences of other men, wisdom. They are developing those powers of initiative, of direction, and of responsibility which lie within the range of every man's experience in a democracy and which must be developed if he is to have any right there as a citizen. Our school is young; our thesis is comparatively new. Yet from our graduates in business life and in colleges we get reactions which give us hope. There can, moreover, be no question as to the power of habit.

The extra-curricular activities which are the organs of student co-operation at the Senn High School are, at least and beyond the shadow of doubt, helping these young people to form habits of community consciousness and alertness to the need of civic reforms, giving them some experience in adopting direct and honest methods of achieving these reforms, and developing their ability to lead with integrity and to follow with intelligence—in a word, these activities are contributing to the development of the social mind, which is the one basic need today if democracy is ever to be achieved.

## WHAT DO WE MEAN BY "COMMUNITY CIVICS" AND "PROBLEMS OF DEMOCRACY"?

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Out of the discussions and experiments of the last ten years there seems to be emerging an approximate consensus of opinion as to the program of social studies for the high school. The trend seems to be toward two courses other than history: a course in the so-called "problems of democracy" in the twelfth grade and a course somewhere in the junior high school, usually designated "community civics" or, in some places, "community-life problems." The latter is now a required course for the ninth grade in a number of the leading cities. But however definite the trend, there is still occasion for discussion in order to clarify our concepts. The present writer has some very definite convictions as to objectives and subject-matter in these courses, and the purpose of this article is to present them for the consideration of others interested in the same problems.

Let us consider first the more elementary course. One of the most pertinent indications of the evolution of this course is the changing use of the term "civics" in the attempt to name it. Fifteen years ago we used to talk about "civics" without any qualifying adjective. Then we invented the term "community civics," but that did not satisfy us long. The inadequacy of the term was felt, and some wag satirized it as "ash-can civics." Five or six years ago we began talking about "vocational civics," "economic civics," and "social civics." The adjectives applied to civics are now beginning to suggest jokes, as there seems to be no limit to their multiplication. There might well develop, for example, "ethical civics," "household civics," "international civics," etc. The latest serious move in nomenclature is to drop the word "civics" altogether and use the term "community-life problems" for the course so generally found in the ninth grade.

While more or less amusement can be gotten out of this uncertainty and confusion in the use of terms, a very definite trend is

revealed just beneath the surface, which it only remains for us to uncover for our own enlightenment.

A rhetorical device that will bring this trend into absolutely clear relief is to contrast the words "citizen" and "socius." One feels impelled to apologize for the latter word, which is borrowed from the technical language of sociology, but it is indispensable for our present purpose, as there is no equivalent in ordinary English. The word "socius" means the individual as a member of society. It connotes the group life in which the individual participates. The word "citizen" implies the individual's relations to only *one* institution, namely, the state. The word "socius" implies the individual's relations to *all* institutions and social processes. The term "citizen" emphasizes a single social responsibility; the term "socius" gives a balanced emphasis to all social responsibilities. Every citizen is in reality very much more than a mere citizen; he is a socius. This is precisely the reason why civics has so completely outgrown the clothes of its own name during the last decade or so.

The pupils in the ninth grade whom we put through the course in community civics, or whatever we call it, will participate in all sorts of social processes: play groups; neighborly associations; family life; adult recreations; the school; voluntary organizations for sociability, insurance, or other purposes; the local, state, and national governments; industry; moral customs; religious institutions; etc. Every activity, institution, and ideal of our complex social life will feel the influence of the pupils' reactions; and this is what we have to get them ready for, if we can. We are training not merely citizens but "socii," and the task of training "socii" is vastly more extensive and complicated than the task of training citizens. No mere civics, however supplemented with adjectives, will serve the purpose.

In view of the fact that the pupils are to become citizens, it is necessary for them to know a great deal about the machinery and underlying ideals of our local, state, and national governments, not to mention international relations. But, since, in addition to becoming mere citizens, they are also to take part in our economic life, it is worth while to give them as much as we can of the type of instruction that we have been calling vocational and economic civics. Since they are further destined to take part in all sorts of

social and recreational relations, there certainly is no harm in their learning something about the why of these relations and the difference between their normal and abnormal manifestations. Moreover, there is just as definite a body of facts to be taught relative to the family as there is relative to the federal Constitution, and for the general public to know them will help to put the family on a sound basis. As to the moral lives of our young people, there is no cause to think that these young people would not be profoundly influenced by receiving definite information about the reasons for morality in general and certain types of behavior in particular. Indeed, why put it beyond the school to penetrate into the very depths of spiritual life and teach the young people what the ultimate values of life really are? Such instruction is just as appropriate as instruction about the amendments to the Constitution or the lines of work most accessible to the pupils; perhaps it is even more functional. All of which suggests how very far the education of the socius transcends the training of the mere citizen.

However, the contributions of the socius to the various aspects of social life are by no means dependent on his enlightenment alone. They depend quite as much on his moral attitudes. Community civics must rise, therefore, to the level of moral education; and that, however difficult, must be adopted as one of the overt objectives of this course. Such is the case in France, we are told. Since the discontinuance of religious instruction in the public schools, social science material has been definitely substituted for religion as the vehicle for moral education.

Let us review and summarize in order to see if we can name the thing at which our thinking has arrived. What we propose is a body of facts about all of the phenomena and relationships of life, with certain lines of behavior suggested and the whole thing shot through and through with motives. Conversely, our objective is to give the children a "set" toward certain types of behavior, and to secure that behavior we propose to depend chiefly on a body of information that will explain the reasons for it. We are trying to tell the children what to do in all of the typical situations of their lives and why. In other words, we are aiming at nothing less than a philosophy of life that will guide them safely through the maze of modern civilization

and cause them to stabilize that civilization by their manner of living in it.

A philosophy of life! Pretentious as the term may sound, it names a commodity that is absolutely indispensable to human existence. William James never wrote more truly inspired than when he declared that a man's philosophy of life is the most important thing about him, for all of his behavior is underlaid and motivated by his "more or less dumb sense of what life honestly and deeply means." Nor can there be any greater mistake than to suppose that a philosophy of life is only for adults. It is something that we all acquired in childhood. We were taught it by our elders so early that the process has been forgotten. That is why it is in most of us a "more or less dumb sense." We got it from our mothers in their answers to the innumerable questions we asked them about everything that came to our attention. We got it from our Sunday-school teachers and our pastors and from our teachers and textbooks at school. We got part of it from our fathers' explanations of free silver, capital punishment, the folly of gambling, the secrets of plant-breeding, and what not. We picked it up from innumerable other sources. But long before we were fifteen years of age we had acquired a fairly complete philosophy of life. Some of us who have since become students have reconsidered and revised parts of it, but most of us are still using quite unrevised the same philosophy of individual and social life we picked up in childhood.

But the old sources no longer suffice; the world has changed too much. Modern science has rendered all but meaningless such terms as "predestination" and "original sin," for example, and compels us to say "heredity" and "instincts" instead. The substitution of power-driven machinery and corporations for hand tools and small shops has antiquated the old slogans about competition and the law of supply and demand and put us in need of new explanations. Bacteria have transformed many of the old health maxims into jokes. The growth of communication and commerce has turned the traditional wisdom about foreign entanglements into traditional foolishness. The old faiths and the old moral codes are in flux so that grandmother's warnings too often provoke high-school youths to nothing but cynical smiles. In short, the old common-sense, rule-

of-thumb philosophy of life has ceased to function. As a result, our young people are at sea, and the social machine rattles as if it threatened to fall apart. What the rising generation needs, above everything else, is a new philosophy of life, and that is precisely what we have attempted to introduce into this ninth-grade course. It is the unconscious urge of this objective that has gradually widened the scope of civics in spite of the handicap of its name and the adjectives with which we have tried from time to time to supplement it.

A philosophy of life, if it is to function successfully in the modern world, must be synthesized out of all of the relevant thought materials of the age. It must take its constituent facts from all of the sciences that deal with human life: biology, psychology, social psychology, anthropology, sociology, economics, political science, ethics, philosophy, and history. It must derive its emotional illumination from literature, the fine arts, and social religion. No narrow field will serve. This is why civics is expanding into "general social science."

Doubtless it looks at first glance like a pedagogical impossibility to teach all of the advanced subjects mentioned to high-school Freshmen. But the impossibility is an illusion. The traditional philosophy of life which we learned from our elders in childhood took its materials from these very fields, however little we may be in the habit of recognizing the fact. It matters not whether you say "predestination" and "original sin" or "heredity" and "instincts"; you are talking biology and psychology in either case, and it is hard to see why the new scientific concepts are any more difficult than the old theological concepts. What your father used to tell you about competition and the law of supply and demand was economics even if he did not label it as such. Is it any harder for your boy to understand why competition does not regulate railroad rates than it was for you to understand why competition regulates the price of groceries? The Copernican cosmology is no more obscure than the Ptolemaic, and the story of creation in Genesis is no easier for children to grasp than the outlines of the evolutionary theory. The sociological explanation of modern public education is inherently no more abstruse than the theological explanation of the medieval church. Yet all of these antedated theories have been taught to children for centuries.

As a matter of fact, the difficulty of this basic material from the modern humanities is an illusion of the middle-aged mind and arises from the laborious process of relearning to which most intelligent middle-aged persons have been subjected. Not until we of the older generation had become adults did most of this new material come to our attention, and then we experienced the painful difficulty of making room for it by clearing our minds of the antiquated material which we had absorbed with so little conscious effort in childhood. To root out old beliefs and ingraft new ones, to connect the contradictory new with every functional item of an old apperceptive mass—that is the difficult thing. Few persons have the mental vigor to undertake the task. But to receive the new on the blank tablet of an inquiring young mind—that is easy. We perversely forget, however, that the minds of children are fresh and open. The pedagogical difficulty is in our preconceptions, not in their immaturity. Our problem is to adapt this new scientific material to their interests, and the fault is ours if we do not succeed.

But succeed we must, for without a sound philosophy of modern life this complex and exceedingly problematic new civilization which we are bequeathing to our children without their consent will prove unworkable in their hands. But we mean to succeed. This new junior high school course is a new instrument for an age-old function that has to be performed under new and puzzling conditions. It is a new device for teaching a new generation how to operate a new world.

The name for such a course is not a vital matter. However, it seems that the word "civics" has been outgrown. Nor can one see why the word "community" should be retained. To retain the term "life problems" without the word "community" would give the appearance of a vestigial remnant. To call it the orientation course would suggest the gropings of junior-college deans and their makeshift course that will prove functionless as soon as the high school finds itself. If the course must be named, the present writer's preference is for "general social science," partly because the material is from the fields of the social sciences and their prerequisites and partly because the name is similar to the terms "general mathematics" and "general science."



So much for the junior high school course. Most of what has been said applies in a general way to the twelfth-grade course, usually called "the problems of democracy." Only two specific comments need to be added.

It makes a vast difference, pedagogically, whether the twelfth-grade course is the student's first introduction to the general subject or whether he has pursued in the eighth or ninth grade the sort of course here discussed. On the assumption that the subject-matter is new, the psychological arrangement of a unified course is doubtless preferable. But such an assumption is rapidly becoming antiquated on account of the drift of high-school practice in this field. As soon as the unified course in general social science becomes generally established in the ninth grade—which promises to be soon—then it would seem that we might offer for twelfth-grade students logically organized introductory courses in economics, sociology, and political science. The problems of democracy are economic problems, sociological problems, and political problems, and in the case of students of some maturity there are pedagogical arguments for the more logical arrangement, especially in view of the background that the earlier courses will give them. With such a background, they may surprise us by handling such introductory courses almost as well as college Sophomores and Juniors are now handling them with their present background of Latin, rhetoric, mathematics, and Elizabethan literature. If we should make the ninth-grade course and the twelfth-grade course quite similar in both subject-matter and arrangement, we could hardly blame the students if they should invent the nicknames "hash" and "rehash" for the two courses.

Doubtless it was unavoidable in the evolution of the social sciences that stress was first placed on social pathology. Our attention was given to the lamentable facts of poverty, crime, degeneracy, labor conflicts, and the like. Naturally we wanted to find the cure. But, as these sciences have developed, attention has shifted from social pathology to social anatomy and social physiology, if one may extend the metaphor. Is this not better, both from the standpoint of scientific work and from the standpoint of the practical effects on the minds of students? Emphasis on the sore spots in society has a certain morbid effect on the minds of young persons. It makes them

imagine that they ought to be agitators, radicals, reformers, philanthropists, social workers, or something of the sort. It tends to fill their heads with queer, immature ideas, with increased danger that they may fail to function normally in the staple relations and fundamental institutions of society. And that is likely to do far more harm than good.

The most important social contribution that the typical citizen can make is to function normally in the ordinary relations of everyday life: in the family, in his work, as a neighbor, at the booth on election day, in support of the school and the church, and with respect to the moral code. If all citizens could be depended upon to do these ordinary things effectively, our social problems would largely take care of themselves. To that end it seems wise to explain the fundamental social institutions and show young people clearly how much they can contribute to the general welfare by merely taking their normal parts therein and how much harm they would do by any breach or neglect of such relationships. Is not this flank attack on our social problems, by way of social anatomy and physiology, likely to prove more effective in the long run than a noisy frontal drive on the sector of social pathology? It is the deliberate judgment of the present writer that the time has come to lay less stress on the "problems" of democracy and devote ourselves quietly to the task of teaching scientific economics, sociology, and political science to the candidates for the high-school diploma.

## SHOULD THERE BE HONOR STUDENTS AT HIGH-SCHOOL GRADUATION?

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Each year's graduating class brings forth the question, Who are the honor students? At the time of commencement, the question is as popular among the patrons of the school as it is among the students. When the question, Who are the honor students? is asked, others immediately follow: Why are they honor students? To whom shall this title of "honor" be given? What shall be the basis of appointment or selection for this group of pupils?

In order to determine the practice of high schools in selecting honor students, letters of inquiry were mailed to 175 high-school principals. The schools were selected from towns varying in population from 3,000 to 150,000. The principals were prompt in their replies, and answers with definite information were received from 151 schools. These schools are distributed geographically as follows: New England section, 24; Middle Atlantic section, 49; East North Central section, 33; West North Central section, 16; South Atlantic section, 11; East South Central section, 4; West South Central section, 3; Mountain section, 6; and Pacific section, 5.

The following questions were asked:

1. Do you have "honor" students at graduation?
2. On what basis are they selected?

In twenty of the high schools no honor students are named at the time of graduation. The remaining 131 schools name honor students and use the pupils' marks as a basis for selection. Marks are the only basis of selection in 108 schools. In other words, the students having the highest numerical averages for the subjects taken during the course are called honor students. This term is applied by sixteen schools to all students who maintain an average of at least 90 per cent for a period of four years; in twenty-six

schools the students are required to maintain an average of at least 85 per cent. In three schools the highest honor is awarded on the basis of the first three and one-half years of work, while two schools allow the fourth year of work to form the basis of selection. Three schools select the highest 10 per cent of the graduating class, and one school calls the upper third of the class honor students.

Various other methods are used for selecting honor students. "School citizenship" is the basis of selection in sixteen schools. Ten schools have chapters in the National Honor Society, and their student members are the only honor students named.

Letters were also sent to a number of state officials in charge of secondary schools in order to obtain their opinions with regard to the naming of honor students. The following questions were asked:

1. Do you favor the naming of "honor" students at high-school graduation?
2. On what basis should they be selected?

Replies were received from all of the fifteen officials addressed. Since a tabular summary would not do justice to the arguments presented, the following quotations are included:

*Jesse B. Davis, supervisor of secondary education, Connecticut.*—I am frank to say that I do not believe in the custom. I have been guilty of doing that sort of thing, and my experience is that we have not yet discovered any honest or just means of determining who should receive these honors. I believe that it encourages an unwholesome kind of rivalry which is overemphasized by proud parents and that, on the whole, it is not democratic.

*J. S. Stuart, state inspector of high schools, Georgia.*—I favor grading by the letters A, B, C, and D above a pass and E and F below. A students would be the highest group—call them honor students if you wish. I do not favor first and second honors, etc. Honors in school should be like those in Heaven—open to as many as will attain thereto.

*John Calvin Hanna, supervisor of high schools, Illinois.*—I am not an advocate of the grading system as commonly practiced. I believe that it is subject to so many flaws and is so wholly impossible as a means of expressing clearly, either to parent or to pupil, what the pupil has done and as a means of guiding him in the future, that long ago I did away with it entirely in the school in which I was principal for many years.

We adopted the plan of sending monthly reports to the parents on a blank provided for the purpose and in a sealed envelope addressed to the father's

office unless otherwise requested by the parents. Opposite each subject taken by the pupil was entered the letter "A" or the letter "D" with a plain statement below that "A" was an abbreviation for the word "accepted" and "D" an abbreviation for the word "deficient" and another plain statement that the grade "A" meant that if the pupil continued work up to that standard, he would pass in the unit or half-unit as the case might be, whereas the grade "D" meant that there must be immediate and permanent improvement or the pupil would fail in the course.

No parent ever misunderstood any one of these statements, but thousands of parents have misunderstood the significance of "69."

The only honors conferred on our graduation pupils were in the selection of speakers for the commencement exercises, one of whom was called the "valedictorian." We usually had five speakers, sometimes only four in a class of 75 to 150 pupils, and these were chosen by the principal, with the assistance and advice of the teachers. In the choosing of these five speakers the following points were taken into consideration: (1) The person selected must be a good student. (2) His attitude toward the school and its administration and life must be worthy of commendation. (3) He must be able to prepare a paper that would be creditable to the school and interesting to the large audience to which it is to be presented. (4) He must be able to deliver it in such a way as to be listened to and heard. After these persons were selected, their names were presented to the members of the class, and the class was given the responsibility of choosing one of them for a valedictorian. Before the ballots were cast, the members of the class were instructed that a heavy responsibility was placed on them which ordinarily would be a part of the duty of the principal of the school, that they must make their choice on the same principles as would guide the principal of the school in making his choice, and that they must arrive at an answer to the question, Who of the five is the best qualified person to do the particular thing which the valedictorian is expected to do?

The operation of this plan was wholly successful, as shown by experience lasting over a number of years.

*J. E. Edgerton, high-school supervisor, Kansas.*—In large schools it may be used to advantage. In small schools it often arouses animosity. The honor pupils should be selected on the basis of scholarship and general activity as a social factor in the school.

*Frank P. Morse, supervisor of secondary education, Massachusetts.*—It seems to me that the best basis for selecting honor students in connection with the graduation exercises of high schools is to star on the program the names of all of the students whose average ranks for the high-school course are above a certain selected standard.

Another good method is that which will be proposed in the high-school manual soon to be issued in this state. The section dealing with this matter reads as follows:

"As a substitute for the valedictory and salutatory honors, a school may establish an honor group to contain every student who obtains A or B in at least 60 credits of work in a four-year high school or 45 credits in a three-year senior high school. This plan will lead to the substitution of a spirit of emulation and friendly, helpful co-operation for antagonistic competition."

*Carl A. Jessen, high-school supervisor, Montana.*—I believe that the naming of honor students at the time of graduation is an efficient device for increasing respect for scholarship in our high schools.

It seems quite logical to me that honor students should be selected on the same basis as determines the promotion of pupils. At the present time the basis for promotion is usually scholarship alone. Consequently, I know of no better plan for determining honor students than on the basis of scholarship.

*L. L. Jackson, assistant commissioner, secondary education, New Jersey.*—Honor students are named in many New Jersey high schools, and the department approves. The principals base the selections on the pupils' scholarship records during the four years of high-school work.

*James Sullivan, assistant commissioner for secondary education, New York.*—Yes. Highest honors for those who average 90 per cent or above in their studies and have not less than 80 in each one. Honors for those who average 85 and have not less than 70 in each subject.

*C. B. Ulery, high-school supervisor, Ohio.*—Not very strongly. Selected on a basis of all-round accomplishment. I favor giving recognition to that pupil who best responds to all of the objectives of education, including, of course, superior scholarship.

*James N. Rule, deputy superintendent (secondary education), Pennsylvania.*—The practice of selecting the valedictorian and the salutatorian or of ranking students at graduation as first, second, and third honor students is, I believe, now pretty generally discredited. The distinction between individual "honor" students is usually so narrow that it becomes a distinction without a real difference. It has been demonstrated, I think, without a doubt that distinctions of less than 8 per cent in marks are not valid.

*Clarence H. Dempsey, commissioner of education, Vermont.*—Yes. It is desirable. Preferably basis of scholarship throughout the four-year course with extra credit for senior year. If possible, helpful participation in school activities should be included. *Cum laude* diplomas might well be awarded.

*M. L. Combs, supervisor of high schools, Virginia.*—I see no objection to naming honor students at graduation. Any pupils in this state who average 95 or better in all of their high-school subjects and who have a good record, in so far as conduct is concerned, are considered honor students.

*Edwin Twitmyer, high-school inspector, Washington.*—The honor students are usually selected on the basis of their scholarship during the entire four-year course. Most schools follow this plan in our state.

*L. L. Friend, supervisor of high schools, West Virginia.*—Yes. I would base the selection of honor students on standing in class, effort, and general attitude and spirit of students in school life.

*J. T. Giles, supervisor of high schools, Wisconsin.*—I do not favor the naming of honor students at high-school graduation. I can see no reason why students naturally endowed with exceptional ability should be singled out for special honors at graduation time. This is particularly true if scholarship is regarded as the only basis for selection.

The same questions were asked of administrative officers in three of the leading schools of education in the United States, and the following replies were received:

*James E. Russell, Columbia University.*—Honor students should be named on the basis of scholarship and good citizenship in the school.

*H. C. Morrison, University of Chicago.*—Methods of selecting honor students are very largely matters of personal taste and judgment. I do not know that any answer can be given founded on accepted educational principles. I am personally not in favor of naming honor students at high-school graduation. If, however, such students are to be named, I think that they should be selected on the basis of (a) actual achievement in the school as contrasted with mere superiority in marks and (b) personal and intellectual growth during their high-school days.

*Frank E. Spaulding, Yale University.*—I do not favor the naming of honor students.

Should we name honor students at high-school graduation? Thirteen per cent of the schools represented in this investigation do not name honor students, and 87 per cent name honor students, using marks as one of the means of selection. Seventeen per cent of these schools consider school citizenship and the qualities listed in the constitution of the National Honor Society as important as marks and include them as a basis of selection. Three of the fifteen state officials appealed to oppose the naming of honor students; four are doubtful, and eight favor it with certain qualifications. Two of the three representatives of the schools of education oppose the naming of honor students, while one upholds it. Is it true, therefore, that progressive educators of today think the system of naming honor students on the basis of grades only a relic of the competitive idea which has dominated the schools and all other phases of human endeavor?



## WHAT CONSTITUTES GOOD CITIZENSHIP?

RETHA E. BREEZE  
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The most generally accepted aim of education, as indicated by statements made by prominent educators, is to train for efficient citizenship. If this is the primary aim of education, then the next problem is to determine those traits essential to an efficient citizen.

To determine these traits, a class in education in Will Mayfield College wrote, in February, 1924, to four hundred of the leading men and women of the United States whose names appeared in the latest edition of *Who's Who in America*. These persons represent the fifteen occupations and professions in which the majority of the American people are engaged. The geographical distribution of these people includes every state in the Union.

The following letter was sent, signed by a member of the class:

In one of our college courses, we have been considering the meaning and purpose of education. We have reached the conclusion that the aim of education should be more efficient citizenship. Our next problem is to decide upon those traits that are essential to an efficient citizen.

We feel that your position and your achievements render you capable of assisting us in discovering just what these traits are. Hence, we are asking you to fill in on the blanks below five or more traits that you consider the most essential in an efficient citizen.

Replies to this letter were received from 37 per cent of the people to whom it was sent. Numerous and varied traits were enumerated. Many seemed closely related in meaning, but, unless identical in thought, they were tabulated as different traits. Two hundred and twelve different traits were found in the 819 traits submitted.

Table I lists in the order of their frequency those traits which were mentioned five or more times.

The traits mentioned most frequently by members of various groups are as follows: business men, honesty; college presidents, honesty; doctors, honesty; editors, honesty; farmers, honesty;

TABLE I

	Frequency
Honesty . . . . .	58
Knowledge of, and interest and participation in, national, state, and local affairs . . . . .	56
Industry . . . . .	47
Religious traits, such as religious faith, reverence for God, love of God, Christianity, religious conviction, practical Christianity, and loyal church membership . . . . .	28
Loyalty . . . . .	25
Courage . . . . .	24
Tolerance . . . . .	19
Patriotism . . . . .	19
Respect for, obedience to, and enforcement of law . . . . .	19
Public spirit . . . . .	18
Intelligence . . . . .	16
Integrity . . . . .	16
Open-mindedness . . . . .	15
Good health . . . . .	14
Willingness to serve . . . . .	13
Good character . . . . .	12
Liberal education . . . . .	11
Co-operativeness . . . . .	11
Unselfishness . . . . .	10
High ideals . . . . .	9
Knowledge (unclassified) . . . . .	9
Knowledge of history . . . . .	8
Vocational professional training . . . . .	8
Perseverance . . . . .	8
Justice . . . . .	8
Devotion to home and family . . . . .	8
Good morals . . . . .	7
Thrift . . . . .	7
Courtesy . . . . .	6
Thoroughness . . . . .	6
Application . . . . .	5
Imagination . . . . .	5
Truthfulness . . . . .	5
Fairness . . . . .	5
Initiative . . . . .	5
Energy . . . . .	5
Faithfulness . . . . .	5
Love for others . . . . .	5

K.K.K. leaders, Christian; labor leaders, honesty; lawyers, honesty; ministers, religious faith; noted women, industry; professors, social-mindedness; scientists, community service; stage people, honesty; statesmen, fidelity to laws of country; writers, honesty.

The results of this investigation show that the efficient citizen must be honest and industrious. He must be intelligently interested in the affairs of the nation, the state, and the community and actively participate in them. He must respect and obey the law and advocate its enforcement. Loyalty, patriotism, and public spirit must rank high in characterizing him. He must have religious ideals developed within him. To these traits must be added courage, tolerance, intelligence, integrity, open-mindedness, good health, willingness to serve, liberal education, co-operation, unselfishness, and character.

The traits mentioned in the preceding paragraph stand out most prominently in the survey. Other traits were given first place in some of the replies, however, but it is believed that many of these are included in the traits which appeared most frequently or are closely related to them. Whether or not the results of this investigation have brought out those traits most essential to an efficient citizen depends on the acceptance or non-acceptance of the opinions of a considerable number of prominent people. If we accept their opinions, the important question before us is, Do the schools of today function as they should in developing these traits?

## INDEXING THE QUALIFICATIONS OF DIFFERENT SOCIAL GROUPS FOR AN ACADEMIC CURRICULUM

DOUGLAS WAPLES  
University of Pittsburgh

There is abundant evidence to show that the predominating type of high-school program in the country at large is the academic curriculum, consisting of the traditional disciplinary subjects in which the pupils are held to a single standard of achievement. That programs of this type favor the pupils in the upper quartile of the social-economic scale to the increasing neglect of progressively lower levels is a fact more often asserted than proved. Its ready acceptance by the progressive renders the conservative more insistent in his demand for proof, and the fact is easily proved. It has been clearly demonstrated by Counts for communities in general.<sup>1</sup> It remains to be demonstrated for each particular community which needs to make more adequate provision for those pupils who will not enter college, that is, for at least three-fourths of the total enrolment. The purpose of this article is to describe the simplest possible adaptation of Counts's procedure whereby certain criteria may be used in collecting evidence concerning the relative value of the single academic curriculum to pupils of different social groups. The uses of such evidence for publicity, administrative, and supervisory purposes are obvious. The procedure will be described by outlining its application in a preliminary survey of the high-school program of Homestead,<sup>2</sup> Pennsylvania.

<sup>1</sup> George Sylvester Counts, *The Selective Character of American Secondary Education*. Supplementary Educational Monographs, No. 19. Chicago: Department of Education, University of Chicago, 1922.

<sup>2</sup> An industrial community, adjacent to Pittsburgh, with a population of 21,079. The data here discussed were collected at the request of Port Eckles, superintendent of the Homestead schools, and are used with his permission.

In determining the pupil groups to be compared with reference to the academic program offered, the father's occupation was regarded as the significant factor for the reasons supplied by Counts:

Occupation is the central fact in the lives of the great masses of people. It is the interest that occupies the time and energy of the ordinary person for the major part of his waking hours. In large measure it determines his place of residence, his associates during the working-day, and his more intimate acquaintances and friends of the leisure moments. If pursued for years, it will set its mark on his physical nature and will stamp his mind with its special pattern. It will determine to a considerable degree what he does, what he thinks, and his outlook on life. Increasingly, it seems, a man's occupation in this complex world determines his political affiliations.<sup>1</sup>

Five occupational groups were made to include the seventeen groups distinguished by Counts on the basis of the census classification,<sup>2</sup> since a more general classification is necessary when the numbers considered are small.

Homestead Group A (Counts's Groups 1-3)

1. Proprietors (bankers, landlords, manufacturers, merchants, publishers, shopkeepers, etc.)
2. Professional service (artists, authors, clergymen, dentists, engineers—civil, electrical, mechanical—lawyers, musicians, pharmacists, teachers, etc.)
3. Managerial service (agents—express, railroad, telegraph—contractors, managers, officials, inspectors, etc.)

Homestead Group B (Counts's Groups 4-7)

4. Commercial service (agents—real estate and insurance—buyers, clerks in stores, salesmen, etc.)
5. Clerical service (accountants, bookkeepers, other clerks, etc.)
6. Agricultural service (dairymen, farmers, fruit-growers, etc.)
7. Artisan-proprietors (all artisans who own the shops in which they work, including bakers, barbers, draftsmen, electricians, machinists, printers, etc.)

Homestead Group C (Counts's Groups 8-12)

8. Building and related trades (carpenters, electricians, sheet-metal workers, structural iron workers, etc.)
9. Machine and related trades (designers, draftsmen, engineers, firemen, founders, mechanics, millwrights, molders, pattern-makers, tool-makers, etc.)
10. Printing trades (bookbinders, compositors, pressmen, etc.)

<sup>1</sup> George Sylvester Counts, *op. cit.*, p. 21.

<sup>2</sup> *Ibid.*, pp. 22-23.

11. Miscellaneous trades in manufacturing and mechanical industries<sup>1</sup>
  12. Transportation service (baggage-men, brakemen, chauffeurs, etc.)
- Homestead Group D (Counts's Groups 13-16)
13. Public service (firemen, guards, marines, marshals, police, etc.)
  14. Personal service (barbers, chefs, cooks, janitors, porters, sextons, waiters, etc.)
  15. Miners, lumber-workers, and fishermen
  16. Common labor
- Homestead Group X was used to include those pupils who reported their fathers' occupations in such general terms that it was impossible to classify them.
17. Occupation unknown

Table I shows by grades the number and percentage of pupils in each of the five occupational groups in the Homestead High School. In order to indicate how far the occupational distribution

TABLE I  
NUMBER AND PERCENTAGE OF PUPILS IN EACH OCCUPATIONAL GROUP

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group X	Total
Number of Pupils						
Grade IX....	27	44	80	51	49	251
Grade X....	16	28	48	24	22	138
Grade XI....	30	41	44	2	18	135
Grade XII....	21	17	12	6	7	63
Total.....	94	130	184	83	96	587
Percentage of Pupils						
Grade IX....	28.7	33.9	43.5	61.5	51.0	42.8
Grade X....	17.0	21.5	26.1	28.9	22.9	23.5
Grade XI....	31.9	31.5	23.9	2.4	18.8	23.0
Grade XII....	22.4	13.1	6.5	7.2	7.3	10.7
All grades....	16.0	22.2	31.3	14.1	16.4	100.0

of the pupils may be regarded as normal in communities of comparable type, the elimination figures shown in Table II are presented. It will be noted that the rates of elimination lie within the limits of the averages reported by the authorities quoted.<sup>2</sup>

<sup>1</sup> While not specified by Counts, this group is used to include the local steel mill workers, such as machine operatives, all semi-skilled labor, second helpers, other helpers, etc.

<sup>2</sup> Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education*, p. 129. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1918.

Since the pupils were not asked to sign the blanks on which they reported the facts concerning their social status, no correlations

TABLE II  
ELIMINATION BY GRADES EXPRESSED IN THE PERCENTAGE WHICH  
THE ENROLMENT OF EACH GRADE IS OF THE  
NINTH-GRADE ENROLMENT

Grade	As Found by Thorndike in 23 Cities (1906)	As Found by Ayres in 58 Cities (1908)	As Found by Strayer in 319 Cities (1911)	Homestead High School (1923)	Distribu- tion of Total Enrolment in Home- stead High School
IX.....	100	100	100	100	42.8
X.....	63	50	56	55	23.5
XI.....	44	30	46	54	23.0
XII.....	30	25	33	25	10.7

between social status and teachers' marks or intelligence ratings could be determined on the basis of the data here reported. Table III, which shows the age-grade medians for each group, is therefore presented for what little evidence it contains of a positive correlation between social status and mental ability.

TABLE III  
AGE-GRADE MEDIANS FOR EACH OCCUPATIONAL GROUP

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group X	All Groups
Grade IX.....	14.8	14.9	15.4	15.9	15.5	15.5
Grade X.....	15.7	16.0	16.3	16.1	16.3	16.3
Grade XI.....	16.5	16.9	16.8	17.7	16.5	16.5
Grade XII.....	17.6	18.3	17.5	18.0	18.1	18.1
All grades.....	16.7	16.3	16.1	15.5	15.6	16.4
Range in years.....	2.8	3.4	2.1	2.1	2.6	2.6

With the groups thus distinguished, the next step was to devise a number of simple and definite criteria which might indicate the extent to which each group is qualified to benefit by the single academic curriculum. In selecting such criteria it is, of course, important that each should have a real bearing on the pupil's likelihood of success in the type of studies offered. That part of the questionnaire which contains these criteria is here reproduced. It includes such items of Counts' questionnaire as were found to



secure the data desired. The assumptions underlying the choice of the criterions are indicated in the comments which follow the items. These comments, of course, did not appear on the blank used.

Your grade? A or B? Your Age? Years\_\_\_\_\_ Months\_\_\_\_\_

Is there a telephone in your home or in the home in which you live? [It is assumed that the home with a telephone is more likely to provide the social contacts which render academic "culture" desirable than a home without a telephone.]

In what country was your father born? Your mother? [It is assumed that the child of native-born parents is to some degree better able to make social adjustments in school and to recognize the bearing of his academic studies on American institutions.]

What language is usually spoken in your home? [It is assumed that the use of a foreign language at home handicaps the pupil to a considerable extent in most academic studies.]

What is your address? Street\_\_\_\_\_ Number\_\_\_\_\_ [These addresses were classified to show the amount of monthly rental, which is assumed to indicate the character of the pupil's physical surroundings and the pupil's intellectual outlook to some extent.]

How many grades in school did your father complete? Your mother? [It is assumed that the pupil whose parents have had some academic secondary schooling is more likely to benefit by such study himself than the pupil whose parents have had none.]

Check all of the periodicals and magazines listed below to which your parents subscribe or which they buy and read every month:

Short Stories	Business Journals	Weekly Reviews	Literary Magazines
<i>Saturday Evening Post</i>	<i>Retail Grocer</i>	<i>Independent</i>	<i>Atlantic Monthly</i>
<i>Photoplay</i>	<i>American Druggist</i>	<i>Literary Digest</i>	<i>Scribner's</i>
<i>McCall's</i>	<i>Law Review</i>	<i>The Nation</i>	<i>Harpers</i>
<i>Wild West Monthly</i>	<i>Steel Review</i>	<i>New Republic</i>	<i>Century</i>
(Add others like these)	(Add others like these)	(Add others like these)	(Add others like these)

[It is assumed that the pupil whose parents read magazines or any periodical literature of some literary excellence has an advantage in approaching such studies as English, foreign language, and history.]

Do you expect to complete your high-school course? If not, why not? [It is assumed that the intention to complete the high-school course has a favorable effect on persistence in school and that persistence in school until the upper grades are reached adds greatly to the value of the academic program as a whole.]

What do you intend to do to support yourself after leaving school or college? [It is assumed that the preparatory value of the academic program is largely confined to those pupils who enter college or professions which require further study of subjects begun in high school.]

What is your father's present occupation?

Where or for whom does he work?

Is he owner or part owner of the business in which he works?

If you have a guardian, what is his present occupation?

It should be noted that the assumptions on which the foregoing criteria are proposed by no means imply that the pupil group which meets all of these criteria should elect an academic program where others are available. The converse, however, is implied, namely, that the pupil group which fails to meet any one of these criteria is to that extent less qualified to profit from an academic curriculum than the pupil group which meets them all. Applied in combination, the criteria, so interpreted, clearly reveal significant differences in the qualifications of the groups for the single academic program offered in this school. Table IV indicates the extent to which each criterion is met by each of the occupational groups.

TABLE IV  
THE PERCENTAGE OF EACH GROUP WHICH MEETS EACH OF THE  
CRITERIA PROPOSED\*

	Group A	Group B	Group C	Group D	Group X	All Groups
1. Have telephones at home. ....	67	48	22	15	22	32
2. Have native-born fathers. ....	61	70	59	37	52	58
3. Speak English at home. ....	97	94	86	64	90	87
4. Pay more than \$40 a month rent. ....	79	68	55	29	33	56
5. Parents average nine or more grades of schooling. ....	54	32	22	6	15	27
6. Parents read literary magazines. ....	40	18	23	21	31	26
7. Intend to complete high-school course	96	98	90	81	97	92
8. Intend to enter occupations of Group A	77	48	42	31	45	49
Total. ....	571	476	399	284	385	427
Index number (total divided by 8) ...	71	60	50	36	48	53
Percentage of total enrolment to which number applies. ....	16	22	31	14	16	100

\* The average of the percentages for each group is expressed as the index number for the group. The index number represents the extent to which the group is qualified to benefit from the single academic curriculum on the basis of the assumptions.

It is evident that the index numbers shown in Table IV, like all such group ratings, are no more reliable than the assumptions

on which the criteria are based and that in the case of the criteria numbered six and seven, at least, the data themselves are probably inaccurate. While these inaccuracies are sufficiently eliminated by the pupil conferences which follow the filling out of the questionnaire, the purpose of this account is merely to suggest the value of the raw data as a basis for fruitful discussion by the staff and for whatever further investigation the authorities in a given school may be able to undertake.

When the data contained in Table IV were discussed by the Homestead staff, various implications were suggested as pointing toward remedial measures. These implications, as worked out for and by the staff in the form of recommendations, are here outlined in order to suggest the immediate purposes which data thus readily collected and tabulated may serve in any high school confronted by the problem of enriching a single academic curriculum. Only the first steps are outlined, since these lead to more extensive and adequate readjustments which can seldom be made until the progress resulting from these first steps has become recognized by the community and has justified the provision of the necessary facilities for research.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR ADMINISTRATION

1. *The academic curriculum.*—The ninth grade deserves first attention. That at least the 70 per cent of its members who belong to Groups B, C, and D would profit more from different courses may be safely inferred from the elimination of 45 per cent of the ninth-grade enrolment before the tenth grade is reached and from the discrepancy between the courses offered in this grade and the assumed needs of pupils in these groups. The present ninth-grade courses are ancient and medieval history, English, general science, and algebra. It was therefore recommended

- a) That community civics take the place of ancient history and include a survey of the major occupations in the Pittsburgh district.
- b) That algebra be made elective or that an alternate course in applied mathematics be offered for non-college pupils.
- c) That physical education be required and granted sufficient time in the schedule to accomplish the desired results.

d) That the present ninth-grade course in English be supplemented, when possible, by a parallel course for non-college pupils. This course should consist of readings more closely related to the present interests and probable future activities of those pupils who fail to respond to the course as at present organized.

e) That similar parallel courses in other required subjects and in other grades be introduced so far as the size of the classes permits, choice of either course to be granted to those pupils whose previous work has been satisfactory in the given subject.

2. *The activity program.*—Each pupil in the school was given a list of all of the more common high-school organizations—teams, clubs, councils, etc.—and asked to check those in which he most wished to participate and also those from which he believed the school would profit most. The index numbers show plainly the importance of such activities as may constitute social attractions for pupils of all groups. It was therefore recommended

a) That the *school* activities receiving a majority vote be gradually introduced under faculty guidance and on the responsibility of the student body.

b) That *group* activities be organized by volunteer teachers whenever and for so long as the number of active participants is at least fifteen.

c) That a double period each week be reserved for activities.

3. *Pupil diagnosis.*—Until pupil diagnosis is more definitely undertaken in Grades VII and VIII the need for diagnosis in the ninth grade is acute, as indicated by the range of index numbers. It was therefore recommended

a) That each department continue the general survey reported by surveying the pupil backgrounds more intensively and in terms of specific units of the subject-matter taught. In each required subject the content should be definitely related to these backgrounds. This should be more readily accomplished if parallel courses are offered as suggested.

b) That the teachers in charge of activities contribute systematically to a "guidance file" of such pupils as are reported to be out of alignment with the work of the school, the actual guidance to be undertaken temporarily by the home-room teachers.

c) That a simple testing program be organized to secure correlation between ability in ninth-grade studies, social status, and vocational prospects, with special reference to better provision for ninth-grade pupils in Groups C and D.

4. *Supervision.*—Broadly speaking, the problem of high-school supervision is and always has been how to get it rather than how to improve it. A useful expedient is to make the most of inter-

departmental visits in the school and for the staff to discuss in conference with the superintendent or principal such procedures as have been found effective in closely relating the classroom activities to the community and individual activities revealed by the departmental surveys suggested. It was therefore recommended

a) That interdepartmental visits be encouraged by the appointment of definite times for such visits.

b) That specimen assignments be submitted by each department to indicate the progress made in relating classroom activities to those extra-school activities which study of the given subject should teach pupils to perform.

#### RECOMMENDATIONS FOR THE TEACHING STAFF

1. *Instruction in how to study.*—Whatever progress is made in selecting subject-matter with reference to the pupils' present and future needs, the extreme differences in social environment represented by the index numbers suggest that the same presentation of subject-matter will not be the most helpful for all pupils. Methods of helping pupils to learn must be more largely individualized. It was therefore recommended

a) That subject-matter be organized, so far as possible, in the form of things to be done in the classroom (unit exercises) on which the pupils may work during the period as soon as sufficient explanation and demonstration has been given by the teacher.

b) That the teachers use the time when the pupils are working on exercise materials for the purpose of teaching individual pupils or small groups of pupils how to meet the particular difficulties which confront them in the preparation of such assignments, in general accordance with the Miller directed-study procedure.

c) That instruction in all required subjects be guided by the assumption that for pupils in Groups B, C, and D (68 per cent of the school) mastery of the technique of study is certainly equal in value to mastery of the subject-matter prescribed.

2. *The degree to which prescribed subject-matter should be mastered.*—The wide differences in probable future needs, particularly in the ninth grade, suggest that intensive drill should be largely confined to those few skills in English, science, and social science of which all pupils will make extensive use. It was therefore recommended

a) That each department designate the minimum essentials for each course with reference to the given pupils.

b) That greater time and emphasis be given to applied classroom activities which involve reflection upon community and other social problems and the appreciation of significant points of view.

c) That, pending the introduction of an effective guidance program, sound appreciations of the scope and value of each course as a whole be systematically taught at the outset. Such appreciations should be taught in terms of the direct values of the course rather than in terms of its indirect values, which are usually distorted by the teacher's personal enthusiasms; that is, the pupils should be shown the extent to which they are likely to be held responsible out of school for the same vocational, social, or leisure activities that they will learn to perform in meeting the requirements of the course.

#### CONCLUSIONS

The following conclusions seem justified with regard to the general application of the procedure described: (1) Parental occupation is a significant factor in the determination of case groups among high-school pupils. (2) The extent to which such groups are qualified to profit by the academic program of the small high school is indicated to a useful degree by the criteria proposed. (3) Index numbers derived from these or similar criteria may furnish a basis of comparison among single-curriculum high schools, since the range of index numbers indicates the degree to which the given pupils can be served by *any* single program. (4) Where the range of index numbers shows the need for more adequate provision for the lower occupational levels, the preliminary steps recommended should prove feasible under the usual conditions.

## Educational Writings

### REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

*An informal treatment of progressive tendencies in education.*—The teaching profession, as a whole, is quite certain that the movement of education has been forward. There are many volumes of objective and factual evidence which substantiate such an opinion. However, not all of the lay minds are convinced that the schools of today are any better than those of a generation or two ago. It is possible that professional school people in general and writers of educational treatises in particular are to blame for this misconception. The former should be more active in educating the general public with regard to modern tendencies in education, while the latter may well produce for popular consumption a larger number of accurate, but non-technical, volumes on current educational problems. Several such books have recently appeared, and among them is one<sup>1</sup> which addresses a series of informal talks to parents and teachers.

The opening chapter indicates that "the education of a child consists in training him to make the best of all his inherent possibilities" (p. 3). The two factors concerned in the educative process are the child himself and those who may be influenced by him. The educational objectives which the author selects do not differ materially from the generally accepted cardinal principles of education. The second chapter deplores the fact that many parents fail to realize the importance of education and neglect to keep their children in school. The arguments of those citizens who claim that the schools are too expensive may be met by the statement that in 1920 the money spent for all luxuries combined was about seventeen times the amount of money spent for education.

Throughout most of the chapters there is a series of sharp contrasts which depict the schools as they were a generation or two ago and as they now are. Formerly, the education given in the school embraced only a limited amount of formal training in the three R's; this instruction was supplemented by numerous and varied home activities. The growing complexity of society has almost broken up home life, and the present-day school must act as a miniature community in order to teach the necessary social and moral relationships which were once taught in the home. The school health program which formerly was concerned only with the elimination of those having contagious diseases has been extended to include complete physical examinations, the analysis of

<sup>1</sup> Eugene Randolph Smith, *Education Moves Ahead*. Boston: Atlantic Monthly Press, 1924. Pp. xiv+146.



the nourishment of children, the school building and equipment, lighting and ventilation, the temperature and the humidity of the schoolroom air, school seating, exercise, and other factors which affect the physical and mental well-being of pupils. By means of the results secured from photographing eye-movements, the author explains the fundamental reading habits in simple and non-technical language that will be readily understood by the lay reader. He champions silent reading as contrasted with the oral method and shows that reading is now by words and phrases rather than by letters as in former days. Several short methods in the fundamental operations of arithmetic are cited to indicate the improvement which has taken place in the manipulation of numbers.

School work was once a monotonous repetition of dry and barren facts, but now the interests of the child are aroused. The purpose of arousing these interests is "not to make work easy but to secure the driving force that accomplishes even the most difficult undertakings" (p. 52). The study of individual differences is one of the most important forward steps in education. Mental and educational tests have made possible a fairly accurate diagnosis and prognosis of the educational status of the individual child. The author points out the fallacy of the former slavish devotion to the marking system. Desirable standards of achievement are to be maintained, but they should be placed in the background and the natural interest of the child placed first. At one time in the history of the school the supreme test of a good teacher was whether he could "make the children mind." The modern tendency is to promote character development and initiative by using some form of co-operative pupil government.

Two chapters discuss the possibilities of the public school and the effect of college-entrance requirements on the development of the school. In pointing out certain dangers to be avoided in educational development, the author emphasizes the fact that real progress is by evolution rather than by revolution. A brief final chapter leaves with parents the thought that it is their duty to help train the children of this generation to carry forward the work of the world in a better way than has been possible in the past.

The author makes no pretense of advancing new theories or discoveries in educational procedure but aims to summarize in an informal way some of the outstanding and progressive movements in the educational world of today. Its brevity, clarity, and freedom from technical language should insure the book a favorable reception among lay readers. Such a volume should do a great deal toward increasing the co-operation of parents, teachers, and the public in promoting the general welfare of the children of the public schools. Various illustrations aid in the interpretation of the reading material.

CARTER V. GOOD

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*Supplementary reading in Latin.*—Latin teachers have felt for some time that it is desirable for students of Latin to have access to supplementary read-

ing material, and the demand for suitable material has become increasingly insistent. *Roman Tales Retold*<sup>1</sup> is a worthy effort to meet this need in the case of second-year students. The stories are simple and interesting. There is first a group of short stories which vary from an anecdote five lines in length to Pliny's story of "The Haunted House," which covers slightly more than a page. These short stories are followed by a simplified version of Apuleius' story of "Cupid and Psyche." The last selection is a play, entitled, "De Mari," which is the skeleton of Plautus' *Rudens* in simple, modernized Latin. The volume is excellent for supplementary reading and deserves the attention of Latin teachers.

Many readers of the *Aeneid* have been moved to add a closing chapter to Vergil's story. One schoolboy's effort has proved of such merit and popularity that it has just appeared in a second edition.<sup>2</sup> In this case the story is in the form of a one-act play. The author suggests that it may be read by students of Vergil, presented in the classroom to lend reality to the text, or staged as a more elaborate production. It is an agreeable bit of reading from which students will derive both profit and pleasure. It also offers possibilities for an attractive pageant with an appropriate musical setting (Gluck's "Orpheus"), but whether the slender plot would warrant such an elaborate presentation is a question. If "beauty is its own excuse for being," perhaps it would.

Another volume<sup>3</sup> has been published which is intended to give the student real experience and intimate contact with Latin. In this case the end is sought through the oral use of the language. The author states in the Introduction that his compilation is really "an anthology of elocution selections." Part I contains, among other orations, the time-honored speech of Spartacus and Washington's "Farewell Address." Part II consists of translations of scenes from Shakespeare. Part III is made up of translations of familiar poetry. The selections are varied in form and content. The Latin has been composed with public delivery in mind and is effective for that purpose. As a further aid to the attainment of the one express end, the English version of each passage is printed beside the Latin.

Aside from the author's purpose, the volume is suggestive to an alert student of a field for his own efforts and may lead to original versions quite as interesting as those found in *Orator Latinus*.

MIMA MAXEY

*Training in truth-telling.*—One of the aims of the high school is to develop in the pupils the power of clear, accurate expression in English, both written

<sup>1</sup> Walter Alison Edwards, *Roman Tales Retold*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924. Pp. 78. \$0.60.

<sup>2</sup> Grant Hyde Code, *When the Fates Decree*. Boston: B. J. Brimmer Co., 1923. Pp. 52. \$1.00.

<sup>3</sup> A. F. Geyser, *Orator Latinus*. Chicago: Allyn & Bacon Co., 1924. Pp. vi+98.

and oral. Most of our high schools devote a large part of the first year to definite training in composition. It is to fulfil the needs of first-year English that Thomas H. Briggs and Isabel McKinney have written their brief course.<sup>1</sup> The book is based on "the conviction that skilful teaching may arouse even young students to a conscious, purposeful, and eager effort for better expression" (p. iii). This sentence sounds the keynote of the authors' technique, for this is a straightforward book which tells the pupil why it is written, tries to make him believe in its value, and then tells him what to do. It is entirely free, in spirit as well as in directions, from the sort of sugar-coated instruction that makes a game of punctuation. Emphasis is placed on "conscious effort to attain the qualities of good everyday composition, oral and written, rather than the attempt to write a narration, an exposition, or a description" (p. iii).

The following list of chapter titles will give an idea of what the authors consider these qualities to be: "Being Sincere," "Mastering the Elements of Good Form," "Striving to Be Accurate and Clear," "Learning to Interest Others," and "Making One Point at a Time." Supplementary exercises and drills in good form, a brief summary of practical grammar, spelling lists, etc., are to be found in the Appendix.

Although the express intention of the book is to give training in written and oral expression, it also leads the pupil to a wider acquaintance with, and a better appreciation of, good literature, for the examples of writing which are used in the exercises are chosen with care for their literary value and for the appeal which they make to young people.

Reproductions of photographs are used effectively throughout the book to emphasize truths. The importance of unity of composition, centers of interest, and accuracy in observation are shown by pictures as well as by the text.

The distinctiveness of the book is due to the expressions of those qualities which it teaches—sincerity, clarity, and interest. The book has moral value, for no one could use it without being influenced by its continual insistence that good expression is telling the truth. Toward the attainment of the foregoing ideals all of the work is directed.

GLADYS CAMPBELL

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*Modernized plane geometry.*—Changes in thought and practice in the field of secondary education during the last quarter of a century have resulted in several states in the elimination of mathematics from the list of required subjects in the high school. Other states are seriously contemplating similar action.

Traditional geometry has contributed to the present attitude toward mathematics in that it has been taught solely for the sake of mental discipline. This theory, however, is being gradually discarded, and textbook writers of

<sup>1</sup> Thomas H. Briggs and Isabel McKinney, *Ways to Better English*. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1924. Pp. viii+332.

geometry are rapidly revising their books in order to bring the subject into closer conformity with the needs, standards, and possibilities of those who study it. A book of the newer type has recently appeared in which the authors have revised their previously published material by enriching it and modifying the presentation to conform to the suggestions and constructive criticisms of many teachers.

The outstanding points of the revision are the introduction of the intuitive method, provisions for the differentiation of the material according to the ability of the class or the individual members of the class, teachableness, and harmony with the 1923 report of the National Committee on Mathematical Requirements. In the preliminary statement which justifies the study of geometry, there are several attractive illustrations. The introduction of illustrations is an innovation in geometry texts. They tend to make the text interesting to the student and to take away its technical aspect.

It is to be deplored that the authors found it necessary to introduce the subject by confronting the student with a maze of definitions. The plan is neither stimulating to the student nor sound pedagogically.

The book, however, has its good points and is a distinct advance over the old type of text. It should prove a valuable aid to the teacher of geometry.

C. A. STONE

*An introduction to contemporary poetry.*—The newest anthology of verses is designed to lead the pupils to an appreciation of present-day poetry—in the words of the author, “to give students a happy introduction to the poetry of the first quarter of this century” (p. iii). In many respects it is a “happy introduction”; in other respects it is not so “happy.”

The editor has wisely made her approach through subject-matter. She has grouped the poems, irrespective of chronology and geography, under the following headings: “Patriotism and Heroism,” “Ballads and Narrative Poems,” “Home and Early Life,” “Life in the Open,” “Social Ideals and Problems,” “Beauty and Truth in the Commonplace,” “Places and Persons,” “Nature and Her Moods,” and “Hope and High Endeavor.” The change from subject-matter to type as the basis of classification in the second group is unnecessary, since the themes of the poems so grouped are those which naturally place the poems in other sections. Many of the poems are excellent; some are mediocre. One wonders as one reads just how the selection was made. The poems in the first group, “Patriotism and Heroism,” will, it is feared, give the pupils the idea that patriotism is a matter of dying for one’s country. There are no poems on love—one of the themes of the greatest interest to high-school pupils.

<sup>1</sup> Claude Erwin Palmer, Daniel Pomeroy Taylor, and Eva Crane Farnum, *Plane Geometry*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924 [revised]. Pp. 348. \$1.20.

<sup>2</sup> *Poems of Today*. Compiled and edited by Alice Cecilia Cooper. Boston: Ginn & Co., 1924. Pp. xviii+324.

Although a great number of writers of good and indifferent verse are presented, such writers as Edgar Lee Masters and Vachel Lindsay are not included in the book, and Carl Sandburg, Robert Frost, Edna St. Vincent Millay, and others of the truly excellent are represented by only one poem each. Nor are these single poems so typical of their authors that they will lead the pupil to seek further acquaintance. Is it not, likewise, a pity that among the American poets, Markham, van Dyke, Morton, Kemp, and Jones should receive the emphasis?

In spite of these serious defects, the book has some excellent features. There is a clear exposition on the form of poetry, a very good general plan for the study of a poem, a complete set of biographical notes, two good bibliographies, and three carefully arranged indexes. The book will be helpful in any classroom. It is to be regretted that it is not in every sense an adequate introduction to the best that is being written today.

MARTHA JANE MCCOY

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*Modern commercial arithmetic.*—Textbooks which are the outgrowth of actual teaching experience should reveal a genuine appreciation of the problems of teaching. Such appreciation is shown in an unusually teachable text<sup>1</sup> on business arithmetic for commercial schools and commercial departments of high schools. The author recognizes the fact that much of the teacher's time is spent in correcting and checking the students' work. In order to reduce this type of work to a minimum so that the teacher may be free to teach and in order to cultivate habits of accuracy on the part of the students, the author has made the self-proving principle the foundation of the book. All of the work in this textbook is to be proved or checked by the students.

In giving instructions to the student, the author says:

By using two different methods of solving every problem and making the results agree, the chances for error are reduced to a minimum. In actual business practice, all your figuring must be correct, and in order to be sure that it is correct, you must prove every solution. The proof is just as important as the solution. A problem solved but not proved is only half finished [p. 11].

Another feature of the book is the grouping of the problems in "sets" much as in the case of bookkeeping. Each set of problems pertains to some commercial situation, and the student is asked to imagine himself in various capacities, such as inventory clerk, stock clerk, bank clerk, tax expert, or manager of an insurance office. He occupies positions with a lumber company, a wholesale grocery, hardware store, insurance agency, and a bank and in the offices of the city clerk and tax collector. He meets with problems and subject-matter such as are actually found in modern business.

<sup>1</sup> Thomas T. Goff, *Self-Proving Business Arithmetic*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1923. Pp. xvi+316.

The author is particularly successful in the clearness with which he defines all new terms. He has written a book which is not only a text worthy of consideration but a book which, were it provided with an index, would be especially valuable for reference work. The chapters dealing with the federal income tax, property taxes, fire insurance, and stocks and bonds are worthy of special mention in this connection.

JAMES W. HOGE

*A neglected phase of home economics.*—The material assembled in a recent book<sup>1</sup> has been gathered from an activity or occupation as old as civilization itself but only in very recent years included as a part of formal education in home economics. Since the demand for the teaching of laundering in both colleges and high schools is increasing, Miss Balderston's timely contribution cannot fail to be thoroughly appreciated.

The first section of the book is devoted to the laundry problems of the home and is introduced with a study of textiles, which makes the work of value to teachers of clothing as well as to teachers of laundering. As might be anticipated, this introduction is followed by a chapter on the removal of stains. The processes of cleansing and renewing are then outlined and explained. One chapter is devoted to each of the following subjects: "Special Cleansing," "Dry Cleaning," and "Fumigation."

A somewhat detailed review of chapter xx, "The Home Laundry," may be interesting and at the same time may serve to convey an idea of the comprehensive manner in which the author has treated her subject-matter. It begins with a list of all of the useful articles of equipment and supplies which one might need. To minimize labor and to be thoroughly efficient, the laundry must be properly located, and the equipment must be placed according to a well-studied plan. The text presents good illustrations of the value of routing. The equipment is dealt with under the following headings: walls, ceilings, floors, tubs, boards, wringers, stoves, machines, and power. The discussion dealing with power is even more detailed than might be expected; the kinds of power are listed and explained, and practical directions are given for such matters as the mending of an electric cord and the reading of a meter. Water softeners, driers, boards, mangles, irons, iron-holders, clothes hampers, baskets, and even fire extinguishers are carefully explained.

The second division of the book appears to be of interest not only to those who teach institutional laundering but also to those who would organize and run a laundry for profit or as a part of some institution, such as a hospital or a hotel. Equipment, of course, has a very prominent place in the discussion and is well illustrated by a large number of reproduced photographs. Some space is devoted to the problems of administration.

<sup>1</sup> Lydia Ray Balderston, *Laundering*. Lippincott's Home Manuals. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1923. Pp. xii+390.

In the chapter entitled, "Suggestions for Teachers," the author gives the "motive for such a text as this," which is to present the "conservation of textiles through careful and effective renewal" (p. 326). It is the author's belief that many teachers are trained only to teach the production of clothing from new materials and are not trained to teach the renewal of clothing by good methods of renovation.

The last section, "Development of Laundering," gives a brief historical sketch for the purpose of emphasizing the great progress in the reduction of labor which has been made within very recent years as the result of invention and more intelligent methods of procedure.

HAZEL SHULTZ

A new edition of "*Les Misérables*."—Teachers of French in high schools and junior colleges will welcome a new edition<sup>1</sup> of Hugo's *Les Misérables*, admirably arranged and adapted for class or outside reading in the third, or possibly second, year of the high school or at the end of the first year of the junior college. Its correct placement will depend on the instructional methods in use, since, apart from the natural difficulty of the text, the treatment in the notes and exercises is of the *explication de texte* type, common to other texts edited by M. Cardon.

The abridgment to 138 pages of text has been skilfully and satisfactorily done. The result is a well-balanced, continuous narrative of the life and deeds of Jean Valjean which recounts the most important episodes of the original work and gives a very fair conception of the story-telling art of Victor Hugo. All necessary omissions have been clearly summarized in French, insuring a smooth development of the theme. Twenty illustrations, specially drawn by M. Vérité, contribute to the interest, appearance, and value of the volume.

The exercises, entirely in French, are grouped about the chapter divisions. In his *explications* M. Cardon comments effectively on such allusions or constructions as need elucidation; he offers synonyms and antonyms, provides definitions, and indicates occasionally an English equivalent. In the *exercices d'assimilation* part of the material in the *explications* and other matter from the text are worked over and over until assimilation seems assured. The exercises include questionnaires, verb drills, idiom drills, retranslation, and grammar drill. The book contains verb appendixes and a French-English vocabulary.

The edition is perhaps better adapted to rapid reading than to intensive use, since the exercises and notes are not sufficiently elaborate or specialized for the grade of intensive instruction presupposed by the difficulty of the text itself. However, that is a matter to be determined by the nature of the previous language experience. It is a capital story, well edited, and should find its place in the reading program as soon as the reading adjustment of the pupil has been consummated.

O. F. BOND

<sup>1</sup> Victor Hugo, *Les Misérables*. Edited by Léopold and Alice Cardon. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1923. Pp. xiv+234.



*Teacher-training in Canada.*—The most recent study<sup>1</sup> of teacher-training in Canada differs mainly in the matter of method from such earlier studies as *The Preparation of Teachers in Ontario and the United States* by F. A. Jones and *The Training of Teachers in Ontario* by W. J. Karr. The last-mentioned surveys were made by men thoroughly conversant, through actual experience, with the whole educational system of the province of Ontario. The present report is based on interviews, library work, questionnaires, and a two weeks' visit to the training schools. Very similar topics are treated in all three publications, but, while the two earlier works are mainly descriptive, the latest presents in sixty carefully prepared tables a mass of factual material bearing on the educational unity of the province of Ontario; the origin and development of teacher-training; the government, control, and personnel of the normal schools; courses of study; stimulus to other provinces; and Ontario's contribution to the problem of teacher-training. In several instances features of the Missouri system are included for the sake of comparison. A freer use of graphs would have helped to make clear the facts presented in the tables and the text.

A number of errors occur. John Seath was superintendent, not deputy minister. The normal model schools are not "partially controlled by the public school system" (p. 185). Demonstration teaching is not confined to normal-school instructors but is carried on very extensively by critic teachers of the normal model schools.

Mr. Melvin has been very successful in locating some of the weaknesses in the Ontario system: the overcentralized control in province and school, the overprescription in courses of study, the restrictive influence of the numerous manuals, the lack of difference in the training of teachers for rural and urban schools, the severe overloading of instructors, the unduly heavy curriculum, and the burden of innumerable examinations. On the other hand, many strong features are noted, such as the unity of purpose and effort, the lack of competition among the schools, the proper distribution of the training centers, the economical use of funds, the provision for some training in the case of practically all teachers, etc. The points are, on the whole, well chosen; the chief weakness lies in the brevity of their treatment. To such a fundamental subject, for example, as the need and functions of laboratory schools, but two pages are devoted. One of the most urgent needs of the public-school system of Ontario is the establishment of schools, urban and rural, for experimenting with courses of study, organization, methods of practice-teaching, etc. The normal model schools at Toronto and Ottawa could well form the nucleus. They are firmly established and are under the direct control of the Department of Education.

The present volume brings out many problems already well known but contributes little toward their solution.

H. M. LEPPARD

<sup>1</sup> A. Gordon Melvin, *The Professional Training of Teachers for the Canadian Public Schools*. Baltimore: Warwick & York, Inc., 1923. Pp. 212. \$2.10.

## CURRENT PUBLICATIONS RECEIVED

GENERAL EDUCATIONAL METHOD, HISTORY, THEORY,  
AND PRACTICE

- ALEXANDER, CARTER. *Bibliography on Educational Finance*. Report of the Educational Finance Inquiry Commission, Vol. IV. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. vi+258.
- BAGLEY, WILLIAM C., and KEITH, JOHN A. H. *An Introduction to Teaching*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. x+400.
- BOBBITT, FRANKLIN. *How to Make a Curriculum*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. Pp. 292. \$1.80.
- BOGARDUS, EMORY S. *Fundamentals of Social Psychology*. New York: Century Co., 1924. Pp. xiv+480. \$3.75.
- The Child: His Nature and His Needs*. Edited by M. V. O'Shea. Valparaiso, Indiana: Childrens Foundation, 1924. Pp. x+516. \$1.00.
- CLARK, HAROLD F. *The Cost of Government and the Support of Education*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 145. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. Pp. x+78.
- CLARKE, F. *Essays in the Politics of Education*. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1923. Pp. x+158.
- EDMONSON, J. B., and LEWIS, ERWIN E. *Problems in the Administration of a School System*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1924. 84 problems.
- EDMONSON, J. B., and SCHORLING, RALEIGH. *Problems of the High-School Teacher*. Bloomington, Illinois: Public School Publishing Co., 1924. 68 problems.
- FOWLKES, JOHN GUY. *School Bonds*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1924. Pp. 176. \$2.25.
- FRASIER, GEORGE WILLARD, and ARMENTROUT, WINFIELD D. *An Introduction to Education*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924. Pp. xii+274. \$1.50.
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- GRIFFITTS, CHARLES H. *Fundamentals of Vocational Psychology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. xiv+372.
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- HORN, JOHN LOUIS. *The Education of Exceptional Children*. New York: Century Co., 1924. Pp. xvi+344. \$2.00.
- The Junior High Schools of Rochester, New York*. Rochester, New York: Board of Education, 1923. Pp. 230. \$1.00.
- KOOS, LEONARD VINCENT. *The Junior College*. Vol. I, pp. xxxii+238; Vol. II, pp. 239-682. Research Publications of the University of Minnesota, Education Series, No. 5. Minneapolis, Minnesota: University of Minnesota, 1924. \$5.00.
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- LYMAN, R. L. *The Mind at Work*. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co., 1924. Pp. 350. \$1.60.
- MINOR, RUBY. *Principles of Teaching Practically Applied*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. Pp. xii+282. \$1.90.
- MOEHLMAN, ARTHUR B. *Child Accounting*. Detroit: S. A. Courtis (1807 E. Grand Blvd.), 1923. Pp. 206. \$1.85.
- MOORE, CLYDE B. *Civic Education: Its Objectives and Methods for a Specific Case Group*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 151. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. Pp. x+120.
- MORT, PAUL R. *The Measurement of Educational Need*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 150. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. Pp. viii+84.
- MOSSMAN, LOIS COFFEY. *Changing Conceptions Relative to the Planning of Lessons*. Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 147. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. Pp. vi+72.
- NEWMAYER, S. W. *Medical and Sanitary Inspection of Schools*. Philadelphia: Lea & Febiger, 1924 [revised]. Pp. x+462. \$4.00.
- PAYNE, ARTHUR F. *Administration of Vocational Education*. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1924. Pp. xiv+354.
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- PETERS, CHARLES C. *Foundations of Educational Sociology*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. x+448.
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- SUZZALLO, HENRY. *Our Faith in Education*. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1924. Pp. 108. \$1.25.
- Teaching Business Subjects in the Secondary School*. Edited by Conner Thorne Jones. New York: Ronald Press Co., 1924. Pp. viii+308.

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- TRALLE, HENRY EDWARD. *Dynamics of Teaching.* New York: George H. Doran Co., 1924. Pp. x+190. \$1.60.
- VINCENT, LEONA. *A Study of Intelligence Test Elements.* Teachers College Contributions to Education, No. 152. New York: Teachers College, Columbia University, 1924. Pp. viii+36.
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#### BOOKS PRIMARILY FOR HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHERS AND PUPILS

- Arithmetic Assignments for Vocational and Trade Schools for Girls.* Prepared by the teachers in the Manhattan Trade School for Girls, New York City. New York: A. S. Barnes & Co., 1924. Pp. 102. \$0.90.
- BABB, HUGH W. *Business Law.* New York: Ronald Press Co., 1924. Pp. viii+490. \$1.75.
- BOON, F. C. *A Companion to Elementary School Mathematics.* New York: Longmans, Green & Co., 1924. Pp. 302. \$4.50.
- BOWDEN, R. D. *The Evolution of the Politician.* Boston: Stratford Co., 1924. Pp. 248. \$2.50.
- CENTER, STELLA STEWART. *Students' Handbook: Term Plan in English* (seventh year, first term). New York: Boni & Liveright, 1924. Pp. 64.
- CENTER, STELLA STEWART, and SAUL, LILIAN MARGARET. *A Book of Letters for Young People.* New York: Century Co., 1924. Pp. xxii+220. \$0.85.
- CHÉRON, JEANNE, and SCHENCK, EUNICE MORGAN. *A Handbook of French Correspondence.* New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1924. Pp. x+126. \$0.85.
- CLÉMENT, MARGUERITE, and MACIRONE, TERESA. *Voici la France!* Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1924. Pp. viii+288. \$1.44.
- Course of Study Monographs (Los Angeles City High Schools): *Agriculture*, pp. 136; *Auto Electrics*, pp. 62; *Carpentry and Mill Cabinet Work*, pp. 60; *Character and Conduct*, pp. 104; *Electricity*, pp. 160; *English*, pp. 202; *General Science*, pp. 62; *Home Economics*, pp. 120; *Latin*, pp. 48; *Library Instruction*, pp. 16; *Machine Shop Practice*, pp. 128; *Music*, pp. 68; *Printing*, pp. 106; *Social Studies*, pp. 176; *Supplementary Problems in Algebra*, pp. 38; *Visual Art*, pp. 64. Los Angeles: Board of Education, 1923.

- DONDO, MATHURIN. *Pathelin et Autres Pièces*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1924. Pp. vi+222. \$1.16.
- DOWNING, ELLIOT ROWLAND. *Our Physical World*. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1924. Pp. xviii+368. \$2.50.
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- FAIRCHILD, HENRY PRATT. *Elements of Social Science*. New York: Macmillan Co., 1924. Pp. x+484.
- FLECKER, O. J. *A School Chemistry*. New York: Oxford University Press, American Branch, 1924. Pp. viii+238. \$1.20.
- HART, JOSEPH K. *Social Life and Institutions*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1924. Pp. vi+424. \$1.80.
- HAWLEY, HATTIE L. *Teaching English in Junior High Schools*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Co., 1924. Pp. viii+142. \$1.20.
- HIGGINS, ALVIN M. *The Constitution of the United States with Comment and Explanation*. Yonkers-on-Hudson, New York: World Book Co., 1924. Pp. viii+56. \$0.32.
- HOLZWARTH, CHARLES, and PRICE, WILLIAM R., in collaboration with J. SQUAIR. *Beginners' French*. Boston: D. C. Heath & Co., 1924. Pp. xxiv+374. \$1.56.
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